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Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of English Language

Bringing Students to Become Autonomous Effective Speakers of EFL: An Oral Expression Instruction Based on Teaching Listening Skills via Authentic Video Extracts

Case Study: Second-Year Students of the English Language Department – Batna 2 University

In Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree of Doctorat És-Science in Applied Linguistics

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Dedication

To my dear late father;

To my dear exceptional mother;

To my beloved husband; my everlasting companion;

To the reason for my existence; my children:

Chayma, Aycha, Aymen and Nada;

To my cherished sister and two brothers

To my dear respectful stepfather

To my sisters in Law, my nephew and my nieces

To my everlasting friend Prof. Kelthoum Bibimoune me.

To all my friends and colleagues from both universities Batna 1 and Batna 2

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Abstract

The present study investigates the impact of introducing listening instruction in the oral expression course on second-year students' EFL speaking skills in the Department of English, Batna 2 University, in the academic year 2019-2020. Drawn on Thornbury's awareness-raising model, this instruction includes a three-phase model: pre-listening, listening and speaking, in addition to being based on short authentic video extracts and cautiously designed activities. Furthermore, it intends to provide teachers with a model for teaching the oral expression course, including the pedagogical material and suitable activities. It is hypothesised that the implementation of the listening instruction will have a positive impact on students' EFL speaking skills. Two data-gathering tools were used: questionnaires and classroom observation. Two questionnaires were administered: one for 250 second-year students and one for 8 oral-expression teachers. For the experiment sample, paired random sampling was adopted to include 20 participants from the whole population. The observation embodies the survey of the students' reactions and speaking achievements before and after the implementation of the listening-based instruction. The paired-sample t-Test was used to evaluate the statistical significance of the suggested hypothesis and was confirmed by the computer statistic program SPSS. All things considered, the quantitative and qualitative interpretation of data confirmed the positive influence of introducing the listening-based instruction on students' speaking skills in terms of effectiveness and autonomy.

Keywords: EFL listening instruction (teaching), EFL listening skills, EFL speaking skills, EFL oral expression course.

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

CEF	Common European Framework
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CT	Critical thinking
$\bar{d}$	The Mean Difference
$\bar{d}^2$	The squared Mean Differenced
df	Degree of freedom
di	The means' difference between X and Y
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
ESP	English for Special Purposes
FL	Foreign Language
FLA	Foreign Language Anxiety
H_0	Null hypothesis
H_1	Alternative hypothesis
L1	First Language, Native Language
L2	FL/SL
LB	Listening-based Stage
LF	Listening-free Stage
n	Sample size
NLP	Neuro-Linguistic Programming
OE	Oral Expression
S	Student

S_d	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SL	Second Language
s.p.s	syllables per second
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
t	Paired sample t-Test
t_{crit}	Critical t-value
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target Language
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TPS	Think-Pair-Share technique
UCLES	University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate
w.p.m	Words per minute
X	Students' scores in the Listening-free Stage
Y	Students' scores in the Listening-based Stage

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study

There has long been a consensus that there is a gap between language teachers and language researchers, generally known as 'the theory/practice gap'. Scholars, for their part, do not seem particularly concerned with producing theories that have applications in real class contexts or with whether theories claiming universality apply in various contexts. Teachers on this concept do not seem interested in new methodologies and research results (Cooke & Simpson, 2008). Consequently, instead of just being exposed to research findings, teachers are encouraged to engage with their classroom-research theory and processes independently and in their own contexts. They are well placed to take responsibility for their instruction and their students, as stated in the quote above. This type of research is known as *action research*. Consequently, several studies have been conducted in language teaching under the heading of this type of research; English as a foreign language appears to have received the most attention.

Recently, Algeria has demonstrated a keen interest in EFL instruction and investigation, first by promoting research, especially at the higher education level, and then by enhancing the role of English in education. Many measures have been taken by the government and the Ministry of Education to introduce EFL alongside French in primary schools, and accentuate its instruction and learning in secondary and high schools. This is a relatively late decision compared to all the other government resolutions, especially vis-à-vis the universality of the English language paradigm. Enrolled as a horizontal module, the English language appears everywhere at the university level, regardless of the speciality targeted, and at all levels, including bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees. The goal is to teach EFL under the shutter of English for Special Purposes (ESP) to provide students with enough knowledge to understand the language and read and write articles in English. In layman's terms, the aim is to serve scientific research purposes. The English language

proficiency is at the centre of the teaching-learning process in English departments, which includes both the receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing) aspects of FL learning. Obviously, The EFL instruction is more rigorous and amplified in these settings.

But for a long time, speaking was only occasionally discussed in these sittings, and listening was hardly ever taken into account; reading and writing were given the most attention. However, a reconsideration of EFL teaching by the Algerian government and all the decisions it brought about, as well as a growing focus on action research in efficient EFL communication, appear to have given serious attention to EFL listening and speaking in English departments in recent decades.

Accordingly, the ongoing focus these two issues have received since the 1980s is what led to Algeria's evolution toward a greater emphasis on listening and speaking. Theories have gone in and out of fashion to highlight the importance of teaching listening and speaking skills. This has given birth to a revolutionary shift in the consideration and methodology of teaching listening and speaking. In terms of the latter, grammar-based syllabuses appeared to have no place in the new methodologies, in contrast to communicative syllabuses, which have as their primary goal the development of fluency. Consequently, to improve their speaking skill, it becomes imperative for students to develop communication strategies and engage in the negotiation of meaning through information-gap and other tasks that require attempting real communication despite limited proficiency in English (Richards, 2008).

Moreover, due to the growing evidence of communicative competence, the interrelationship between speaking and listening has also been highlighted (Harder, 1980; Bahns, 1995; Rost, 2002; Harmer, 2007; Thornbury, 2013; Richards, 2008; Lynch, 2009; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Wilson, 2012; Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Mart, 2020; Tsang,

2022). This means that even listening became central to the new tendencies. It was acknowledged as a crucial element of second language proficiency (Richard, 2009) and as a necessary element of language instruction that can help students get ready for social interaction in the real world (Bahns, 1995; Lynch, 2012).

Vandergrift and Goh (2012) advanced listening as a crucial skill that allows language learners to receive and interact with language input, and facilitates the emergence of other language skills. Similarly, Art Tsang (2022, para. Introduction) advanced that receiving input—whether spoken (listening) or written (reading)—can be viewed as the first crucial step in learning a language because, without it, no language development and output (speaking and writing) can occur. In the same vein, Harmer (2007) emphasised the importance of EFL listening frequency over the development of students' perception and production of the target language. Listening to spoken texts, he believed, was beneficial to pronunciation since it provides the listeners with good *pronunciation models* that allow them to absorb better pitch, intonation, stress, and word sounds, whether considered in isolation or connected speech.

Nevertheless, methodological debate has long surrounded the best way to teach speaking and listening skills, despite the significant shift toward recognizing listening and speaking as essential elements of EFL communicative competence. There does, however, seem to be consensus regarding the significance of helping students advance beyond the level of linguistic competence (mastery of the linguistic system) to achieve communicative competence, which is the ability to use English appropriately for a variety of different communicative purposes, primarily social, educational, and professional ones. (Richard, 2009).

Additionally, there is agreement that teaching students to become more conscious of the spoken English language's characteristics will help them develop their ability to deduce

how the language functions (Willis and Willis, 1996, as cited in Bouzar, 2017). This is supposed to be possible by the use of "awareness-raising activities" (Thornbury, 2013, pp. 41-62). According to the same source, awareness is a concept derived from the cognitive theory of learning, which initially views learners as "empty vessels" waiting to be filled, thus attributing them to an analogous information-processing capacity to that of computers. Thornbury emphasised a three-step model for language processing and language teaching, including awareness-raising, appropriateness and autonomy. In other words, to reach EFL fluency, students must consciously consider the rules of the English language system to understand how they really function. Thus, they become able to shift from other-regulation to self-regulation (autonomy) instead of mere repetitions of the PPP model (presentation, practice and production) (Thornbury, 2013, p. 38).

All things considered, we conducted the present action research because, like many of our fellow educators, we were drawn to the new trends, and were enticed by the desire to satiate our natural curiosity. This work aims to closely examine how listening and speaking interact in the context of oral expression, drawing primarily on the metacognitive model developed by Vandergrift and Goh (2012) and the listening awareness-raising model developed by Thornbury (2013). Differently put, we aim to probe if teaching the listening skill influences students' EFL speaking skills. Another aim is to provide a model for teaching speaking based on developing listening, which adapts to the students' wish to reach the desired communicative competence by furnishing the oral expression course with more structured instruction.

2. Statement of the Problem and Theoretical Framework

Due to our dual experience, first as a former student in the English department of the University of Batna and then as an English teacher long enough to allow us to conclude, we

attest that the primary goal of any student's desire to learn English is to become proficient in speaking it. Students are generally fascinated by this universal and iconic language that has long invaded the modern world and entered nearly all societies' daily lives, regardless of their geographical, doctrinal or linguistic boundaries. Moreover, being brought up with English present almost everywhere in the home -mainly on TV or on the net- and outside, at least at school, today's students grow up believing that learning English is a must, even when they choose another academic discipline.

The degree to which a student is imbued with motivation and readiness to learn English determines this belief's intensity. Due to this, a student who plans to travel abroad for professional reasons will undoubtedly be more motivated to learn English than a student who is only interested in the language for affectation or fun. In comparison to a student who is relatively weak, the one who is proficient in English and has made progress to a respectable level in earlier stages is more likely to achieve communicative competence. However, communicating in English becomes a priority and a necessity regardless of the reasons and the predispositions.

Effective English interaction, however, is still difficult given the complexity of the English language and how communicative competence, including speaking and listening, is handled in various educational settings. The students generally complain of the lack of vocabulary, pronunciation and the incapacity to maintain a discussion or produce long coherent sentences. And even if they manage to do well in the other modules, particularly those requiring a written response, the oral performance remains a problem that, while improving, stays long, tedious and unsatisfactory.

Moreover, although speaking English is necessary for asking and answering questions and interacting with teachers and peers in the classroom, it does not appear to improve as it

should, particularly when compared to written language. Probably this is a result of English speaking being everywhere but only taught explicitly in the department of English. It refers to the fact that speaking is not done methodically and is thought to be a skill that students can develop on their own with enough practice over time. This is partly true since improving communicative competence is tightly related to repetition and practice. However, this competence is also thoroughly connected to salubrious listening. By this, we refer to fruitful listening that can advance students' sophisticated cognitive functions and enable them to start deciphering the language and describing its deeper features. In general, the bipolar importance of listening and speaking has been widely approved by scholars in the late literature.

However, practicing listening and speaking requires a conducive environment. They are practiced to some extent in all English department courses, but not explicitly taught in a pedagogical setting where the goal is solely their teaching or development as specific skills. The oral expression course is most likely the closest module that appears to respond to those criteria, albeit only slightly.

Both teachers and students enjoy this course because it is regarded as a recreation in which everyone unwinds from the somewhat strenuous schedule of the other courses. Discussion of a particular topic, usually chosen and started by the teacher, is generally the main activity in these classes. This may not be necessarily inadvisable for skilled students, but it is pretty injudicious for weak ones. On the one hand, gifted students can already interact in oral expression classes and discuss various topics in English more or less freely. This course can be favourable to show off their abilities, practice their English language and interchange ideas.

On the other hand, weak students may find such a setting to be a place where their complexes can thrive, especially if undertaken in such a way. Because of their numerous

knowledge gaps and shyness, many students prefer to stay in their shadow zones to avoid embarrassing situations and face-lost in front of others. They generally complain about their inability to participate in various discussions because they lack the necessary skills and knowledge and the overabundance of contributions of their skilled peers in the classroom.

Besides, the oral expression classrooms also lack the necessary pedagogical materials, which can help the students recover their English-speaking shortcomings. In other words, realising the importance of addressing the issue of listening and speaking, and intending to implement it in one's teaching would not be operational without the appropriate equipment. This dilemma seems to be the point of convergence for all other Algerian English departments. In a similar vein, Abdeldjalil Bouzenoun (2008) described the squalor that characterises our language laboratories. This relates mainly to the frequent technical problems when the server (the teacher's computer) is not connected to the lab network or in case of the absence of a fixed projector which can compensate for the computers' technical issues. This if a language laboratory already exists!

To reiterate, relying solely on discussions is detrimental to students for two main reasons. First, this assumes that all students can speak English intelligibly and master the features of spoken discourse and communicative competence, which implies that the speaking skill is taken for granted. Second, relying on one type of activities all the time leads to boredom and lack of participation. As a result, most students may be drawn to this course simply because it is safe, as long as they are left alone in their shaded areas to rest, at best, listen to the skilled others, and avoid interfering with what happens in the course. This may, at best, provide for a kind of passive learning since they may acquire knowledge about the topic under discussion and unconsciously decode some features of Spoken English. Yet, this remains insufficient and can only be helpful in the development of the listening skill and over a long period.

Nevertheless, we cannot really talk about improvement in listening without referring to exposure to everyday natives' spoken English, which we don't usually find in our contexts that rely solely on the teachers' English. On the level of production, things are more evident. In the absence of practice, no improvement can be discussed.

And due to the majority of students' reluctance to participate in the discussion, teachers in oral expression sittings find themselves obliged to intensify their talk and rely more on skilled students to animate the session. This results in a dull session that is heavily dependent on the teacher and leaves little room for a handful of more or less skilled students to animate the course.

Even in the absence of the circumstances mentioned above, the oral expression module can be the best environment for students to develop their English-speaking abilities. Those conditions cover its main four constituents: the teacher, the activities, the materials, and the learners (Arabi, 2017). First, teachers must be willing to cede their place to students to express themselves and communicate in English so that they become only guides of the teaching-learning process rather than direct and heavy participants. Second, the activities must be varied. On the one hand, this is meant to provide more opportunities for students to decipher the various codes of the English language through some listening activities; on the other, it offers an interactive practice of the acquired knowledge to assess progress and make necessary corrections through well-designed speaking activities.

Third, concerning the third constituent of the oral expression course, it would be illogical to speak about assisting students in developing their English-speaking skills without exposing them to native speakers' everyday English, whether directly (inviting an English person into the classroom) or through English-speaking pedagogical materials. And given the

inability to provide an English native speaker at every session, authentic materials appear to be the best alternative and most readily available solution.

Furthermore, in terms of the final constituent, *the student*, the shift to student-centred methodology has assigned a new definition of the significance of students' contribution to their learning. This implies that the passive role of students is no longer fashionable and that active actors are now the focus of the new methodology. The students are then believed to be both actors and receptors in the classroom. Actors since they are supposed to interact with others (teacher and peers), participate in the different activities and react to all that happens in the classroom; and receptors, since they are meant to receive knowledge from various sources, mainly the teacher and the pedagogical materials. However, the lack of proficiency leads them to rely heavily on their teachers and skilled peers to correct their mistakes and escape awkward situations. Moreover, just as for any successful teaching-learning process, students must be willing to learn and show cooperation and readiness to improve their English-speaking competence not only in terms of intelligibility and discourse management but also to reach the desired level of sounding like natives.

3. Objectives of the Study

In an attempt to bridge the gap, if only a little, between language teaching and language research, as to link research to the art of teaching (Hopkins, 2008), the present work falls under the framework of action research that implies a deep exploration of the teacher's own practice, using scientific methods and building on the results of previous studies. Relevant data are to be collected to make rigorous reflections on how oral expression instruction is conducted in our classrooms and how teachers and their learners approach the listening and speaking issues.

Otherwise stated, given that improving students' communicative competence is the goal of any EFL instruction in general, oral expression in particular, and given that there can be no improvement in speaking without serious consideration of listening; the goal of this research is to propose a model of oral-expression instruction premised on listening-based teaching that relies on short authentic video extracts and well-designed activities. In this, we drew mainly on Thornbury's (2013), Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) and Wilson's (2012) conceptions of teaching listening and speaking. In more straightforward terms, the present objectives are meant to:

- Probe the potential effect of a listening-based instruction relying on authentic video extracts (the independent variable) on second-year students' EFL speaking skills in terms of autonomy and effectiveness (which represent the dependent variable). The goal is to assess the probable relationship between teaching listening through authentic video extracts and students' speaking skills.

- Investigate the interactive relationship between listening and speaking in depth.

- Provide a more structured model of teaching oral expression based on a three phases model (pre-listening, listening and speaking phases), which can be helpful for both teachers and their students.

- Outline how the oral expression courses are conducted and learn about teachers' and students' problems.

- Examine the influence of using different activities based on Wilson's (2012) pre-listening, while listening, and post-listening organisation of the course in addition to Thornbury's (2013) awareness-raising paradigm on students' English-speaking autonomy and effectiveness.

- Check out the effect of this model of instruction on students' motivation and the general atmosphere of the oral expression classroom.

- Provide an instruction model that can help teachers assist their students in developing self-confidence and autonomy in EFL production by raising their motivation and decreasing excessive reliance on others.

In sum, aside from attempting to provide an in-depth analysis of the impact of interrelating listening and speaking on students' English autonomy and effectiveness in speaking English, this research aspires to suggest a new framework (model) for teaching speaking in the oral expression course.

4. Definitions of Terms

The development of students' communicative abilities cannot be discussed without referring to the development of dynamic listening and speaking since, in real communication, they are "used in tandem", as stated by Lynch (2009, p. 124) and asserted by many other authors (Harmer, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009; Davies & Pearse, 2009; Wilson, 2012; Rost, 2002). So, before anything else, preparing students to become autonomous effective speakers requires considering their listening abilities.

Listening is no longer considered a passive skill as it has long been (Anderson & Lynch, 1988, p. 6), developing automatically without students' consciousness and without teachers' assistance (Osada, 2004, as cited in Gilikjani & Sabouri, 2016). It is, instead, an active mental ability (Rost, 2009; Nation & Newton, 2009) and a complex interpretive process in which listeners combine what they hear with what they already know (Rost, 2002) to decipher the language. It is thought to be the natural precursor of speaking (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 37) and one of the necessary elements for effective communication (Rost, 2009).

In what concerns speaking, Thornbury made a genuine distinction between knowing a foreign language and being able to speak it (2013). According to him, the statement "She knows Italian" does not entail "She can speak Italian" (p. iv). So, speaking in the present research is not simply parroting grammar (Palmer, 2014, p.6) but the development of learners' abilities to communicate effectively. Effectiveness, as underlined by the majority of the related literature (Boonkit, 2010; Lynch, 2009; Thornbury, 2013; Nation & Newton, 2009, Ahmadi, 2017), requires the learner to be proficient in many essential areas, such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, discourse management, and interactive communication.

Effectiveness is also related to autonomy, which refers to the ability to produce the language relying on oneself, not others. To put it another way, an EFL autonomous speaker is one who has "the ownership" of what he hears (Wilson, 2012, p. 41) and has developed the ability to mobilise the features of the target language in real-time and without assistance (Thornbury, 2013, p. 40). In many cases, autonomy and fluency are seen as analogous in EFL communication (Nation & Newton, 2009; Thornbury, 2013; Wilson, 2012; Bygate, 1987).

5. Research Questions

The logical subsequent step to any scientific observation is questioning. The observation of students' and teachers' problems in the oral expression course concerning students' inability to express themselves effectively and autonomously, add to the teachers' complaints about students' levels of speaking proficiency and their failure to assist them, led us to ask the following questions:

- Is there any influence of teaching listening through authentic video extracts on the students' EFL speaking autonomy and effectiveness?
- Is there any influence of watching short video extracts within the listening and speaking phases over students' motivation and listening and speaking competencies?

- Does the use of different activities influence students' motivation to EFL listening and speaking?

6. Research Hypothesis

Under the objectives of the present study, the hypothesis is formulated as follows:

- The introduction of a listening instruction in the OE course based on the use of authentic video extracts (the independent variable) will have a positive influence on second-year students' EFL speaking skills regarding autonomy and effectiveness (which represent the dependent variable).
- Watching short video extracts within the listening and speaking phases will enhance students' motivation and listening and speaking competencies.
- The use of different activities boosts students' motivation to EFL listening and speaking.

7. Research Design and Methodology

Proceeding to provide answers to questions resulting from scientific observation of a given phenomenon is the purpose of any researcher who wants to satiate a persistent curiosity and fuels their desire to reach practical conclusions about the question at hand. For this, the procedure should follow a set of scientific steps to achieve plausible and reliable results. Those steps should be defined in accordance with the approach and the methodology that fits the nature of the research and the various decisions and choices made, mainly sampling and data-gathering tools.

The current study's broad outlines include two major and complementary steps. The first distinguishes the pre-experimental phase, which consists of two questionnaires distributed to second-year teachers and students. The second step consists of an experimental

phase divided into two other stages: free-listening and post-listening. As opposed to the first, the second stage relies on introducing a listening-based instruction in the oral-expression course and observing students' reactions and evolution regarding the reception (listening) and production (speaking) of spoken English.

7.1. The Approach:

The common approach or the 'mixed approach' (Chetty, 2016) was chosen to better support the present research objectives. On the one hand, the quantitative paradigm is used to analyse results from students' and teachers' questionnaires and data from various observation grids; in brief, to produce intelligible and numerical results. On the other hand, the qualitative paradigm is primarily introduced to collect data on teachers' and students' experiences and problems in the oral expression course, in addition to their attitudes towards the introduction of the meant listening instruction as a support for students' speaking skill.

7.2. The Research Method

Since it is primarily concerned with determining the impact of the independent variable changes on the dependent variable, the experimental method is adopted in the current research. More precisely, this method is meant to show whether there is an impact of teaching listening through authentic video extracts on students' speaking competencies in terms of effectiveness and autonomy, which respectively represent the independent and dependent variables.

7.3. Sampling

Simple random sampling is the fundamental probability sampling method, which balances accuracy against cost and feasibility (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). It serves to obtain consistent and unbiased estimates of not only the studied sample but also the whole

population. The nature and objectives of this study required the simple random sampling of two types of samples: a questionnaire sample and an experiment sample. The questionnaire sample is divided into two kinds: participants for the teachers' questionnaires and others for the students' questionnaires. Given that the target population covers the second-year students of the department of English at Batna 2 University for the academic year (2019-2020), the students' questionnaire sample includes 250 students. The teachers' questionnaire encompasses eight second-year OE teachers. However, the experiment sample comprises 20 students from the whole population. Worth to mention is that paired sampling is adopted for this research, which means that the twenty selected students participated in both the listening-free and listening-based stages of the experiment.

7.4. Research Tools

Data collection and analysis are critical components of research (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). The current study relied on two data collection tools to achieve reliable and generalizable results: self-completion questionnaires and a structured observation schedule. As previously stated, the questionnaire included teachers' and students' questionnaires. The teachers' questionnaire was distributed to eight qualified oral-expression teachers. It was intended to provide an in-depth view of how oral-expression courses are conducted, including the used methods and techniques, as well as their possible experience with the listening-speaking issue in the oral-expression course.

Two hundred and fifty examples were randomly distributed to second-year students for the students' questionnaire. The aim is to sketch a broad picture of their perspectives and challenges regarding the listening-speaking issue and how they perceive the use of video extracts to support listening in the oral expression course. The document was intended to be clear and intelligible to ensure trustworthiness and reliability, at least concerning the

questionnaire design. The researcher asked the students to thoughtfully consider each question and devote sufficient time to writing clear and readable responses. The answers, then, were analysed and illustrated according to scientific analytical and arithmetic methods using Microsoft Excel.

In general, classroom observation is believed to be a valuable means teachers use to expand their knowledge, reflect on their own practice and forge their own professional vision (Cooke & Simpson, 2008, p. 135). In scientific research, it is seen as a tool for data collection to provide important information about participants' both external behaviour and inner values or beliefs (Cowie, 2009, p. 166).

The present study's observation was based on five indicators mainly drawn from the CELS Test of effective and autonomous speaking. The four first indicators are based on the notion of speaking effectiveness which is the development of conversational competence related to the development and mastery of four competencies, including grammar and vocabulary; discourse management; pronunciation; and interactive communication (as cited in Thornbury, 2013, pp. 127-129). The last indicator, autonomy, is the ability to self-regulate performance as a consequence of gaining control over skills that were formerly other-regulated (Thornbury, 2013, p.90). Students' achievements in terms of EFL speaking effectiveness and autonomy were evaluated based on these five indicators. Each indicator ranged from 0 to 4, and the sum of each student's resulting scores determined their grades in each particular session.

8. Structure of the Research

Given the current research's trends and objectives, it is quite predictable to deduce how it should be structured. The study includes two main divisions: theoretical and experimental. The first section spans three chapters and focuses on presenting the pertinent

literature, including Teaching Listening; Teaching Speaking; in addition to Integrating Listening with Speaking and Using Authentic Videos in EFL Classrooms. The Experimental part, however, walked through the process and analysis of the current experiment. It includes three other chapters: Research Design and Methodology (the fourth chapter), Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires' Analysis (the fifth chapter), and Analysis and Interpretation of Data (the sixth chapter).

The fourth chapter outlines and justifies the choices regarding experiment design and methodology application. Before narrowing the approach and methodology, it provides a brief recapitulation of the research objectives and the various steps involved in carrying out this investigation. The methodology section covers the statement of the research dependent and independent variables, the sampling method, and the experiment implementation. This latter includes a statement and explanation of how the tools used for data collection (the two questionnaires and the classroom observation) were selected and implemented.

The pedagogical materials selection (authentic video excerpts) is described in detail, followed by an in-depth description of the two phases of the experiment, referred to as the listening-free and listening-based stages, including the three sub-divisions of the second stage (pre-listening, listening, and speaking phases) in addition to the objectives, topics, and activities for each session of both stages. The fourth chapter concludes with an explanation of the methods used for data analysis (paired t-test and SPSS), followed by a discussion of the limitations of the current study.

The fifth chapter is devoted to analysing the questionnaires given to teachers and students. The different questions' formulation, the results presentation in diagrams, and the resulting data analysis were all handled on a case-by-case basis.

The sixth chapter focuses on the analysis and interpretation of all the statistical data, both quantitatively and qualitatively. It includes the presentation and qualitative analysis of the observation grids of the listening-free and listening-based stages and a comparison of each first stage's session to its antagonist from the second. Moreover, those results are statistically analysed through the calculation of the paired sample t-Test and confirmed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (SPSS).

CHAPTER ONE

TEACHING LISTENING

Introduction

Given that listening is one of the four language skills, it stands to reason that its mastery is required for teaching or learning a foreign language. Nonetheless, listening is rarely considered in our ELT classes. Even more blatantly, scientific research appears to have always tended to ignore or, at best, marginally value listening in comparison to other language skills, primarily writing and reading (Howatt, 1984; Nunan, 1998; Harmer, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009; Gilakjani and Ahmadi, 2011, Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Wilson, 2012).

Generally speaking, the goal of any language instruction is to enable learners to communicate effectively in that language. Almost all of the new literature converges on the importance of exposing learners to the type of language that familiarises them with the language of native speakers, whether directly or indirectly via television, radio, etc. A common goal for language learners is to become fluent in English and communicate with the same precision and ease as their native counterparts.

However, this dream usually begins to disintegrate as soon as learners come into contact with the English language and discover the difficulty that underlies its comprehension and production. Becoming an effective EFL speaker cannot be possible without seriously considering the ability to receive the language properly. This requires the ear to learn to listen to English in its most natural and common form. This is a reference to consider the significance of developing learners' listening skills in order to achieve communication goals.

The difficulty of managing listening, whether from EFL learners, teachers or even researchers, will be elucidated in this chapter. A clear description of the different mechanisms and strategies that emphasise listening, the knowledge needed for its mastery and how it can be assessed will be presented hereafter. First, let's have an overview of the listening issue.

1.1. A Historical Overview of the Listening Issue

Listening has long been marginalised. It has been described as a supplement to the other three language skills at best (reading, writing and speaking). As noted by Nation and Newton (2009), its importance has always been taken for granted and seen as the "least understood and the most overlooked of the four skills" in the language classroom (p. 37). The old literature generally paid the least systematic attention to it in both L1 and FL/L2 languages, ignoring not only its importance as a separate skill but also its nature as a thorny process that requires careful consideration and investigation.

In this regard, language speakers were believed to require instruction in how to write and read but not in how to listen and speak; since those skills are automatically acquired by native speakers. Similarly, in foreign language classrooms, listening was merely considered. Vandergrift and Goh stated that while "language learners are often taught how to plan and draft a composition or deliver an oral presentation, learners are seldom taught how to approach listening or how to manage their listening when attending to spoken texts or messages" (2012, p. 4).

Accordingly, learners are left to deal with their listening on their own, with little to no assistance from their teachers. Yet, learners require a lot more attention than this. They must actively control their thoughts, actions, and emotions to master their own learning processes, which Zimmerman and Schunk (2001) refer to as *self-regulation* (as cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). According to the same source, this lack of focus is not intentional but rather the result of teachers' ignorance of the importance of teaching what underpins the listening process; thus, they require support and serious training to scaffold their learners through the listening complexity.

Listening activities were strictly devoted to comprehension ends and limited to some imitations and memorisation of sounds and grammar patterns. They were occasionally accompanied by homework, including a summary of a film or TV news which, at their best, could demonstrate some outcome of learners learning (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, pp. 5-7). And even with the best efforts made on the part of learners, they are still insufficient to improve the intended listening proficiency.

However, it was only when the Council of Europe set out a model of the communicative needs of the archetypal adult FL learner in the early 1970's that things started to change in how scholars and teachers looked at listening (Howatt, 1984). This marked the "first stirrings of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)" and has been widely adopted as the dominant methodology, especially in developed countries, as mentioned in J. J. Wilson's English-Speaking Union award book "How to Teach Listening" (2012, p. 19).Since then, a torrent of valuable writings has been published dealing with listening as a complex system of cognitive and metacognitive skills. Howatt (1984) stated that listening was no longer considered an appendix of the other skills. The role of the teacher was no longer petty and passive. The scope for listening activities has been enlarged to adopt learners' needs to experience more profound reflections on their listening processes and better learn the foreign language in question.

In sum, the shift was from text-oriented instruction to communicative-oriented and learner-oriented instruction (this will be presented mainly in section 3). Many authors have addressed the issue of listening in foreign/second language classes. Many among them (Lynch, 2009; Harmer, 2007; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Wilson, 2012; Nation & Newton, 2009; Palmer, 2014; Anderson & Lynch, 1988) have deepened their research on the most complicated listening mechanisms to give a clearer picture of this skill both in L1 and FL/L2. Their works have become a platform for scholars, teachers, and students.

1.2. What is Listening?

To think of listening as a natural ability shared by all humans (unless they have pathological problems) is perplexing and incorrect. Listening is reduced to *hearing* in this definition, ignoring all the cognitive and metacognitive mechanisms that make it a more conscious process. For instance, Anderson and Lynch (1988) assumed that "Traditionally, listening has often been regarded, alongside reading, as a passive language skill" (p. 6). Similarly, Osada (2004) stated that listening had been considered a passive skill that would develop without help (as cited in Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016).This explains why scholars used to believe that students should be able to master listening on their own.

However, research has shown that listening is much more complicated than hearing. Earlier, Mendelsohn (1994) related it to the ability to understand the spoken language of native speakers. While revealing in some ways that listening is a more or less complicated system, this definition is limited to the first language. Recently, Tavil (2010) claimed the importance of no longer considering listening as a passive skill. She wrote:

> Listening is a receptive skill in that the listener is receiving a message from a speaker, but it shouldn't mean that the listener is passive during a listening task. The listening process, in a way, is a very active process as the listener needs to use background knowledge to understand the intended message of the speaker; so, the listeners should deal with various tasks while listening to activate their schemata. (p. 769)

Moreover, the importance of listening also lies in the fact that it is practised unconsciously and continuously in real life and the classroom. According to Bass (2005), research has revealed that learners "spend 50 to 75 percent of classroom time listening to teachers, other students, and audio media" (as cited in Palmer, 2014, p. 10). This is a significant percentage, implying that listening should be given careful consideration.

Similarly, Nunan (1998) advanced listening as "the basic skill in language learning" and confirmed that "without listening skill, learners will never learn to communicate effectively" since "over 50% of the time spent functioning in a foreign language will be devoted to listening" (p.1).

Moreover, according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), listening to one's first language may appear effortless, implicit, and almost automatic until we encounter new words, an unfamiliar accent, an unknown topic, or some interference in the listening environment (noise or a poor phone connection) that causes us to think more consciously about the process of listening. As a result, we conclude that even our mother tongue can be so perplexing at times that we must treat it as if it was a foreign language. However, foreign language learners, particularly beginners, do not have the luxury of occasionally analysing new words; instead, they are constantly confronted with a new language, so they feel compelled to identify and remember meaningful items in a largely incomprehensible speech stream which implements a more conscious process (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Furthermore, all the recent literature converges on the dynamic aspect of listening. According to Nation and Newton (2009), listening is not just a passive process by which the listener receives information sent by the speaker. It is far more complicated than it appears. According to Rost (2002), it is a complex process of interpretation in which listeners combine what they hear with what they already know. Rost (2009) later defined it as the active mental ability that aids our understanding of the world around us. He advocated listening as one of the necessary elements for creating successful communication. Purdy had previously provided a more detailed description when he pictured listening as "the active and dynamic process of attending, perceiving, interpreting, remembering, and responding to the expressed (verbal and non-verbal) needs, concerns, and information offered by other human beings" (1997, p. 8).

Similarly, Nunan (1998) confirmed the dynamic aspect of listening and related it to the active process of deciphering and constructing meaning from both verbal and non-verbal messages. In other words, listening is about more than just deducing meaning from what we hear; it is also about body language and nonverbal cues. And considering it a skill, Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) related it to listening for thoughts, feelings and intentions, which requires active involvement, effort and practice. Its importance lies in that it enables language learners to receive and interact with language input and facilitates the emergence of other language skills (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Listening to spoken texts, for example, was thought to have a potential positive influence on pronunciation by providing listeners with *good models* that allow them to acquire better pitch, intonation, stress, and the sounds of words, whether considered in isolation or connected speech (Harmer, 2007). Furthermore, for purely communicative purposes, listening is thought to be the most important of the three other language skills. In and out of the classroom, it takes up most of the daily communication time than other forms of verbal communication, develops faster than the other language skills and facilitates their development (Morley, 2001; Rost, 2001, as cited in Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016).

Nonetheless, despite its significance, listening has long been shrouded in mystery. Mendelsohn (1994) reported once that even if 40-50% of the communication time is devoted to listening (compared to 25-30% for speaking, 11-16% to reading and only 9% to writing), teaching listening has long been neglected in many EFL programs (p.6). For a long time, this skill was forgotten compared to all the ink spilt for other language skills. However, this is quite obvious in terms of the difficulty that underpins the investigation of the listening processes. Furthermore, listening is a complex process in and of itself. Vandergrift and Goh advanced it as a complex cognitive skill requiring learners to be able to proceed “what they hear in real time and, concurrently, attend to new input” (2012, p. 37). Also, the listening

difficulty has been explained in terms of the interpretation system that allows listeners to match what they hear with what they already know (Rost, 2002).

Thus, there has been a qualitative shift in listening consideration from a purely passive ability to a relatively active and dynamic skill that necessitates more complicated processes and serious efforts on the part of FL listeners, as well as a more substantial consideration on the part of FL listening instructors. However, dealing with the difficult nature that characterises the listening issue has been and continues to be a major point of interest for both scholars and teachers; learners alike.

1.3. Learners' Major Claims about Listening Difficulty

Participating in a conversation in our first language (L1), or listening to a local journalist on the radio or television, appears to happen unconsciously and without intentional effort on our part. Even when we misunderstand what has been said, we remain unaware of the complexity of listening. This is probably a result of the experience we gain over the years dealing with different people in different situations and settings. It can be just a result of our familiarisation with the distinct characteristics of our first language.

However, when it comes to a second or foreign language, as far as listening is concerned, things become more complicated, even with a satisfactory level of competence. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) argued that in the absence of a coherent consideration of what is really going on in the learner's mind in terms of cognitive and metacognitive processes, listening remains a futile task, which is why it was left untouchable for a long time and was confined to practice but not to teach. Goh (2000) suggested that the best way to strategy training is first to identify the learners' problems with listening. Accordingly, in the coming sections, we will discuss the FL listening difficulties regarding two significant issues. The first is primarily concerned with the dilemma of natural English speech; the second deals with

how listening takes place in EFL classrooms. More specifically, it deals with how listening is taught.

1.3.1. The Difficult Nature of Natural English

Earlier, Mary Underwood (1989) summarised the barriers to effective listening comprehension in five points, including the learners' failure to control the speed of speech; their inability to have words repeated for them; their lack of vocabulary; lack of contextual knowledge and problems of concentration. Similarly, Tony Lynch (2009) advanced that several factors intervene to make the simplest listening situation a "hard deal!" Those factors are divided into three types: those relating to the characteristics of the foreign spoken language itself, those dealing with the psychological perspective, and those relating to the cultural perspective. The first type covers speed, stress, rhythm, and implicit reference. The second type refers to listeners' readiness to deal with the foreign language and their self-esteem. The second is concerned with the amount of cultural knowledge the listener has on the foreign language and, of course, his grammatical and communicative abilities.

In light of these challenges, many teachers use audio input without repetition or interruption to expose learners to a situation that best reflects real-life interactions. (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). This situation generally prevents learners from stepping back to revise what they learned and stop on complex input, which gives way to excessive stress and high anxiety levels on the part of FL listeners (Underwood, 1989). Following is a presentation of some of the natural speech characteristics responsible for the problematic image behind learners' claims.

1.3.1.1. Speech Speed

Most students complain about the difficulty of mastering the speed of the English language. English, we all know, is a fast language. Tony Lynch (2009) stated that the primary

source of difficulty most often mentioned by his learners when they discuss the relative problems of listening and reading is “the speed of the English language” (p. 20). In the same respect, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) related the difficulty of listening in the classroom to learners’ inability to cope with the nature of spoken texts which are experienced in real-time, allowing them little opportunities to slow it down or break it down “into manageable chunks”(p. 4).Moreover, Nation and Newton (2009), drawing mainly on Goh’s (2000) findings, argued that because of the speech stream speed, learners are not allowed enough time to turn perceived forms into an adequate message and may not be able to cover all what they hear, since they may lose parts of the message while being occupied in deciphering another part.

However, research on the relationship between speed and EFL comprehension showed that the increase in speech rate does not necessarily lead to a lower level of comprehension (Lynch, 2009). Related research showed mixed evidence of this relationship due to the implementation of different methods. Ken Kelsh (1985) worked on dictation scores (in terms of form and meaning) of intermediate-level ESL students’ using four versions presented in this order: unmodified version, spoken slowly, modified in ways typical of ‘foreigner talk’, and the foreigner talk spoken at a slower rate (as cited in Lynch, 2009). The findings proved that slowed speech rate supported comprehension. However, the last version demonstrated high scores with an assessment of meaning rather than form. Kelsh reported that this might be the result of the fact that the third and fourth modified versions (in terms of grammar) have created cognitively, but not linguistically, easier versions which resulted in a better understanding of the modified texts but complex recall of their form on the part of the listeners (as cited in Lynch, 2009).

Roger Griffiths (1990) from Nagoya University of Japan, found that only the high speech rate (faster than 200 words per minute or 3.8 syllables per second) can be significantly

challenging to grasp by EFL lower-intermediate students. In contrast, no noteworthy difference was seen with slower rates (100 w.p.m or 1.93 s.p.s) and average rates (150 w.p.m or 2.85 s.p.s) (1990, p. 311).

Further, research on the impact of speech rate on foreign language listening has come to the resolution that despite the ancient focus on the simple calculation of the number of words and syllables per minute, the fundamental factor lies behind "the speaker's pattern of stress and rhythm" (Vanderplank, 1993, as cited in Lynch, 2009, p. 21). This is, in fact, a reference to the pacing and spacing issues. If the first represents the tempo at which stressed words are spoken, the second refers to the number of stressed words in the total number of words. Hence, the higher the spacing-pacing combinations are; the lower is the FL learner's comprehension of what has been said. The impact of speakers' short pauses on learners' FL comprehension was proven far better than the simple slow speech technique, according to Brett Berquist (cited in Lynch, 2009, p. 22).To put it another way, the speakers' short pauses give learners time to analyse and decode the meaning or recover what they have missed in the speech stream. This is not the case when slowing down the speed of speech because they continue processing what is said and have little chance to revise or regulate their understanding.

1.3.1.2. Native Vs Non-Native Accent

Several studies on the influence of the accent on ESL learners' comprehension reported that lecturers' accents represent an obstacle to understanding. Still, no scientific evidence was given to prove the impact of one specific accent rather than another. According to Lynch (2009, p. 22), the accent, whether native or non-native, represents no problem with comprehension; instead, it is "the listeners' degree of familiarity" with the speakers' accent which makes understanding more or less difficult. In other words, the more familiar the listeners are with a particular speaker's accent (generally the teacher's), the less difficulty

they may experience in recognising the words and decoding their meanings. Similarly, Goh (1999) advanced that 66% of learners claimed speakers' accents as one of the most significant factors that affect their comprehension of the English language (as cited in Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). So, it comes down to familiarity and unfamiliarity with the speaker's accent. Unfamiliar accents, both native and non-native, can prevent learners' listening comprehension, whereas familiarity with a given accent helps learners understand what they hear (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016).

1.3.1.3. Unfamiliar Vocabulary

As far as we have dealt with English as a foreign language, we cannot remember the number of times unfamiliar vocabulary, whether written or spoken, obstructed us (and our students) from successfully understanding the language. Despite its crucial importance for listening instructions, research on the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and foreign language comprehension remains modest if compared to vocabulary and reading. However, there is a scientific agreement on the necessity of vocabulary in understanding and producing a foreign language. Nation (2001) advanced that there has long been substantial evidence that deliberate vocabulary learning can lead to large amounts of "well-retained useable knowledge" (as cited in Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 8).

One earlier study, among many which emphasised the influence of vocabulary on reading, was that of Peter Kelly at the University of Namur (1991). He found that "lexical ignorance" is behind several problems of comprehension (p. 147). However, the first work that dealt with vocabulary's influence on listening comprehension was that of Frances Mecartty (2000). She has studied to what extent knowledge of vocabulary and syntax contributes to listening and reading comprehension. She concluded that L2 vocabulary knowledge is a vital interpreter of both reading ability (25%) and listening ability (14%). But

L2 vocabulary knowledge was revealed to be more important for the comprehension process of reading than for listening (pp. 340-341).

This was better explained in a more recent study on some L2 French learners, which aimed to depict the sources of knowledge for listening comprehension (Graham et al., 2010). The authors found that learners compensate for weak vocabulary by deducing what they do not understand from what they already understand. However, as specified by those authors, a certain competence level is required for learners to practise this type of inference.

1.3.1.4. Lexical Segmentation and Recognition

The characteristics of our mother tongue which manifest themselves in the first three or four years of our life, as considered by Lynch (2009), are responsible for creating a kind of "metric model" in our minds which allows us to recognize what we hear (pp. 32-36). As a result, it is not surprising to find, for example, a French EFL intermediate student unable, or having great difficulty, understanding the speech of native English speakers. The French student will almost certainly rely on his mother tongue's method of splitting the speech stream into words from weak to strong syllables, given that French is an iambic language and English is a trochaic language proceeding from strong to weak syllables.

Correspondingly, Beth Zielinski (2008) investigated the impact of the characteristics of the L2 speech signal on the intelligibility of L2 speakers of English to native listeners (as cited in Lynch, 2009, p. 34). Three English native speakers were intended to listen to the speech of three other non-native speakers from different L1 backgrounds. Analysis of the orthographically transcribed utterances of the native speakers showed significant problems identifying their intended words. Analyses revealed a heavy and constant reliance of native students on the speakers' syllables, especially on segments in strong syllables than those in weak syllables.

According to Zielinski, these findings have implications for L2 listeners who want to improve their English listening skills and for L2 speakers who seek to improve their intelligibility. In the same respect, Lynch (2009) assumed that when we try to identify words in the stream of L2 speech, the prosody (stress, rhythm, and intonation) of our first language exerts a potent influence on the recognition process (p. 32).

Further, Lynch referred to the *acoustic blurring* of lexical boundaries in natural speech. The nature of English connected speech makes the shape of a word tightly influenced by the preceding and the following sounds creating some particular sound phenomena. For instance, Gillian Brown's *assimilation* consists of phonemes merging at word boundaries. This includes the glottal stop phenomenon, which precedes [k, g] as in the production of /g/ for /d/ in /ˈɑːməgˈkɑ / *armoured car*, and elision which stands for the omission of sounds as /əzknˈfjuzəzˈevə / for *as confused as ever* (cited in Lynch, 2009, p. 35).

In addition to assimilation and elision, Field (2003) presented two other phenomena that may lay behind the difficult aspect of English (Cited in Nation & Newton 2009, p. 42). The first refers to the *reduced forms,* including *contractions* (e.g., it's instead of it is); *weak forms* (e.g., we hear *z* for his; *n* or *nd* for and); and *resyllabification* (e.g., made out / may doubt). Those linguistic phenomena represent a serious obstacle for any EFL learner lucking knowledge and experience with the different English rules and processes. Correspondingly, Windsor Lewis (1969) made a list of 36 common English words characterised by a weak form of their vowels and which may present segmentation difficulties on the part of second language learners when they listen to a natural speech (cited in Lynch, 2009).

Lynch (2009) also mentioned another feature which makes the English word challenging to decipher: it is polysyllabic. This means that a multi-syllabic word may contain phonetically identical or near-identical shorter words embedded within it. This feature can be

tricky for learners as they may think they hear words that are neither spoken nor intended. For instance, the words *wreck*, *reckon,* and *eyes* may be heard in a puzzling way within the word *recognise,* which makes "how to recognise speech" seems like "how to wreck a nice beach" (Lynch, 2009, p. 35).

Consequently, it is not surprising that an Algerian student encounter difficulties in understanding parts of English speech. The significant difference between how utterances are said and their written forms lead to a blurry image of the English language, especially since learners are used to a narrower form between how the word is written and how it is spoken in their mother tongue.

1.3.1.5. Syntax

Historically, thanks to Noam Chomsky's work on transformational and generative grammar, there has been a shift toward studying the influence of syntax proficiency on listening comprehension. In an early study, Vivian Cook (1973) conducted research in which he compared the difficulties of young L1 listeners and adult L2 learners in dealing with sentences like *the dog is easy to bite* and *the dog is eager to bite*. Similarities were found in how young L1 listeners and adult L2 learners deal with the English language. Both groups misunderstood the first sentence's meaning because they misinterpreted the role of the noun *dog;* not as an agent but as a subject. In other words, they simply proceeded in a standard way to consider every noun falling in such a first position to be a subject. However, he found that the role of the word *dog* in both sentences was adequately interpreted by older L1 listeners and more advanced L2 learners.

In a more recent research, Gillian Brown (2008) introduced the notion of *selective listening*. She demonstrated how listeners adopt various strategies in different structured situations. More precisely, she investigated the influence of syntax on English

L1comprehension and French native speakers. She noticed a sort of syntactic *hierarchy* that made listeners recall nouns more often than verbs, and verbs more often than adjectives and adverbs. Those nouns were called *argument nouns* which are more outstanding when they are subjects or objects of a verb rather than in a prepositional phrase. According to Brown, those nouns are more responsible for helping readers and listeners understand and recall a text.

In sum, the characteristics characterizing the natural English language are not the only ones responsible for the difficulties of learners' comprehension. Learning to listen carefully in EFL classes is another *cup of tea*. And since listening is not easy either, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, both teachers and students must pay close attention to the issue of listening.

1.3.2. The Listening Instructions

In the previous section, we dealt with the characteristics of English oral speech responsible for learners' claims and difficulties. In the present one, we aim to shed light on another serious obstacle to learners' effective understanding and use of EFL. Our primary concern is how the different EFL instructions approach the listening task.

As mentioned before, during the last 50 years, very little has been said and done in listening compared to writing and reading. However, the last three decades showed a rising interest towards seriously considering listening as an essential and distinct skill. Additionally, a deep concern was devoted to foreign listeners as masters of their listening and important parts of the learning process. More precisely, the shift was from more straightforward listening instruction roughly based on comprehension purposes to a far more constructed instruction based on teaching the FL learners how to manage their comprehension and learning. Three types of instruction have resulted from this shift: text-oriented, communication-oriented, and learner-oriented.

1.3.2.1. Text-Oriented Instruction

As the name implies, the purpose of this instruction, as explained by Vandergrift and Goh (2012), was to recognise and understand the listening input according to three points. The first implies decoding skills such as phonemes, word stress and sentence-level intonation; the second covers the imitation and memorisation of sounds and grammar patterns; and the third focuses on listeners understanding of the passage's meaning. According to the same authors, the activities of this type of instruction were limited to testing listening rather than teaching learners how to listen. This is because they were limited to discriminating sounds, dictation or answering comprehension questions based on the listening passage. The instruction is limited to learner-teacher interaction, and teachers' assistance of their learners' learning is minimal.

Moreover, Vandergrift and Goh advanced that, as it was based on the old cognitive psychology, the listener's understanding of the text is supposed to be constructed incrementally or gradually, from the smallest sounds to the whole text. A heavy reliance on written texts read aloud also characterised text-oriented instruction. This implied exposure to an overcrowded language full of complex sentences and a high lexical density, generally quite different from the oral discourse and unsuitable for the listening instruction. As a result, there was not only a shortage of teaching listening as a distinct language skill but also a growing challenge for learners because of the density of the language used (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, pp. 6-8).

1.3.2.2. Communication-Oriented Instruction

As previously mentioned, listening started to be considered a distinct skill in language learning after the publication of the Council of Europe model of the communicative needs of foreign language learners in the early 1970s. Since then, different writers have competed to publish taxonomies of listening and sub-listening skills, as evidenced by the variety with which listening began to be introduced in the various course books.

The influence of communicative language teaching (CLT) was mainly seen in the discussions about innovative methods for teaching in addition to criteria for designing tasks and materials (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Authentic materials, such as songs, movies, and recorded conversations, began to be used instead of long, tedious, read-aloud texts (Eken, 2003; Harmer, 2007; Gilajjani & Sabouri, 2016). The instruction relied on learner-learner interaction in addition to the traditional teacher-learner one. Learners were supposed to respond to spoken texts in socially and contextually appropriate ways so as to infer attitudes, take notes and identify details. They were also supposed to complete the missing information in texts or discourse and use information from listening texts for other communicative purposes.

However, communicative-oriented listening proved to be unsatisfying since listening remained the "sleeping partner in the business of communication", with evident neglect in favour of speaking, and learners did not get sufficient support in learning how to process and manage the listening input they received (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, pp. 8-9).

1.3.2.3. Learner-Oriented Instruction

The rising interest towards the ability of some learners to learn a language better than others gave way to remarkable development in learner-oriented settings (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Most research has called for a strategy-based approach to listening instruction (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, Rost, 2002). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) suggested the learning strategies classification model relied on two bases. First, it aligns an executive (metacognitive) function with an operative (cognitive) processing function, which uses a specific technique to complete a particular task. Second, it targeted the socio-affective strategies that refer to the motivational and affective state of the individual learner. Teachers are encouraged to use modelling techniques (such as thinking aloud) and scaffolded listening practices in learner-centred instruction to help learners understand the cognitive strategies

used to verify informed guessing (Field, 1998). Pre-communication activities are widely advised to raise learners' awareness about listening processes (Buck, 1995, as cited in Vandergrift and Goh, 2012).

In addition, as part of learner-centred learning, learners are exposed to concrete strategies for managing their mental processes, relying on the implicit skills of other competent classmate listeners. A group of researchers, including Gillian Brown, Anne Anderson, Richard Shillcock and George Yule, has widely advised learner assistance in language instruction. They wrote:

> It seems clear that pupils generally feel more at ease talking to each other than talking to a teacher or to some other adult (...) The advantage of talking to another individual who shares the same daily experiences which you have and sees them from a very similar point of view is that you can take so much background knowledge for granted. (Brown et al., 1984, p. 36)

In other words, learners learn better and faster from their classmates. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) believe this method to be quite helpful in the learners' development of awareness about the listening activity in addition to the development of strategies and mental habits which lay behind the improvement of self-regulated learning inside and outside the classroom (pp. 10-12).

However, despite the almost-perfect image of learner-oriented instruction in demystifying successful listening sub-skills and helping learners be more effective in their learning, researchers continued to hope to make the field better. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) took up the challenge with what they later called a 'metacognitive' approach to L2 listening in the hope of helping learners develop the necessary knowledge and control of internal cognitive and affective processes. They also aimed to describe the external social demands

that influence the success of comprehension as a "holistic approach" (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). A more detailed description of this approach will be further presented in the sixth section of this chapter.

1.4. Listening Processes/Strategies

Because the definition of *strategy* implies a kind of conventional process that can be measured, learned, and taught, which does not fit with the here-and-now nature of listening and renders the use of any strategy unrealistic; Nation and Newton (2009, p. 51) argued that the term *strategy* seems to be confusing when it comes to listening. As a result, it will be challenging to train learners successfully with a strategy.

The significance of teaching the learning strategy can be traced back to Rubin's (1975) and Stern's (1975) works, who argued that 'good' language learner strategies should be employed to assist students struggling to learn a new language (as cited by Bozorgian & Pillay, 2012).Since listening started to become considered seriously in language classes, scholars competed to display the different hidden listening processes to help language learners understand and control their listening. O'Malley & Chamot (1989) believed learning strategies to be the conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners to understand better, learn, and remember the SL/FL information.

Crucial elements in the listening process explanation are known as the 'schemata'. Rumelhart (1980), earlier, defined the schema as a data structure for representing the generic concepts stored in memory. He believed schemata could be used to describe our knowledge about all concepts: "those underlying objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions and sequences of actions" (Rumelhart, 1980, p. 34). Vandergrift and Goh described them as complex mental structures that group all knowledge concerning a concept (2012, p. 18). Lynch offered a more detailed definition presenting the schema as a mental structure

comprising knowledge, memory, and experience, which allows listeners to incorporate what they hear into what they know (2009, p. 161). In simpler words, when exposed to a listening comprehension situation, we submit what we hear to a set of previously experienced and stored holistic data that will determine an adequate interpretation of the heard input. The coming sections will present a more detailed explanation of how schemata function as guiding structures in the comprehension process (see section 1.4.3).

In the following sub-sections, four of the most famous cognitive processes are going to be presented: (1) top-down and bottom-up processing; (2) control and automatic processing; (3) perception, parsing and utilization; and (4) metacognition.

1.4.1. Bottom-Up, Top-Down and Interactive Processing

Bottom-up processing relies on step-by-step decoding of a text, beginning with the sounds and gradually building up larger units of meaning (Lynch 2009, p. 159). Field (2003) believed this process to involve the perception and parsing of the speech stream at increasingly larger levels beginning with auditory-phonetic, phonemic, syllabic, lexical, syntactic, semantic, propositional, pragmatic and interpretive (as cited in Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 40). Similarly, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) believe it involves segmentation of the sound stream into meaningful units to interpret the message. They defined it as follows:

> It is a rather mechanical process in which listeners segment the sound stream and construct meaning by accretion, based on their knowledge of the segmentals (individual sounds or phonemes)and suprasegmentals (patterns of language intonation, such as stress, tone and rhythm)of the target language. (p. 18)

In the same vein, Solak and Erdem (2016) provided a more simplified definition of bottom-up strategy, stating that if the listener uses linguistic knowledge clues (i.e., phonemes, syllables, words, phrases, and sentences) to understand the spoken message, s/he is using the

bottom-up strategy. This means listeners diverge increasingly in their construction of meaning from the smallest units (phonemes) to more complex units of meaning (sentences and larger pieces of discourse). This strategy relies less on listeners' prior knowledge; instead, it focuses on some knowledge: (1) phonological knowledge (including phonemes, stress, intonation, and other sound adjustments made by the speaker to facilitate speech production); (2) lexical knowledge; and (3) syntactic knowledge (grammar) of the target language (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). The sounds will be decoded step by step, from phonemes to words to phrases to utterances, to reach complete meaningful texts finally. They will hierarchically activate schemata from the most specific at the bottom to the most general at the top, with meaning to be reached as the last step in the process (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). In this process, the listener relies heavily on his knowledge of words, syntax and grammar to work on form (Rubin, 1994, p. 210).

However, proceeding meaning in this manner proved insufficient, even misleading, when used alone. This is because it only relies on the listeners' linguistic knowledge. They lack the necessary knowledge (primarily vocabulary) and experience to deal with specific FL characteristics such as segmentation, stress, intonation, and so on (see previous sections). Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) related the understanding of a text as the result of the interaction between the listener's prior knowledge, not just linguistic one, and the text. Put differently, a combination of the two processes is more beneficial; however, the aim of listening determines the priority (Solak & Erdem, 2016).

On the other hand, top-down processing, as seen by Richards (2008), refers to the use of background knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. The same author compared the two processes and assumed that "whereas bottom-up processing goes from language to meaning, top-down processing goes from meaning to language" (Richards, 2008, p. 7).Vandergrift and Goh believe that top-down processing appeals to listeners' different

knowledge about the listening input stored in the long-term memory in the form of the already described schemata: (a) prior world or experimental knowledge; (b) pragmatic knowledge; (c) cultural knowledge about the target language; and (d) discourse knowledge including types of texts and how information is organized in these texts (2012, p. 18). The coming sections will present a clear description of these types of knowledge.

Unlike the bottom-up process, top-down processing helps listeners experience meaning by starting with more general knowledge about the introduced topic or event and using it to infer the meaning of single words. This knowledge may include that of the subject to be treated, the speaker/s and their correlation with the situation, with each other and with past events. (Carell & Eisterhold, 1983, p. 557).

However, when used alone, this approach appears inadequate too. Listeners may lack the necessary knowledge for an adequate understanding of the message. Carell and Eisterhold (1983) summarized the top-down process's weakness in situations when the incoming information is unfamiliar to FL listeners. Consequently, they fail to evoke their schemata which oblige them to rely on their mere linguistic knowledge. Add to this, listeners may, erroneously, trigger schemata other than the ones expected and meant by the speaker (Carell & Eisterhold, 1983, p. 557). These two situations demonstrate the inadequacy of the top-down process alone.

It is clear, then, that collaboration between these two processes, known as *interactive processing*, is required if the goal is to be effective in listening comprehension. According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), evidence drawn from research on L1 speech perception has shown that the two approaches work interactively but with different degrees of reliance on one or the other depending on the input itself and the purpose of listening. According to Richards (2008, p. 10), the extent to which one or the other dominates depends "on the

listener's familiarity with the topic and content of a text, the density of information in a text, the text type, and the listener's purpose in listening". When the material's content is familiar to the listener, s/he will activate their background knowledge to make predictions about the heard input, which will be validated or disapproved according to the new input. However, suppose the content is unfamiliar to the listener. In that case, this input (with a low level of proficiency) can only depend on the listeners' linguistic knowledge, especially lexical and syntactical (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

In all, if bottom-up processing proved to be more beneficial for L1 listening, top-down processing was advocated by different researchers for its efficacy over listeners rather than readers (Lynch, 2009, p. 109) in addition to its value as a criterion to differentiate FL effective listeners from ineffective ones (O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989).

1.4.2. Automatic and Controlled Processing

As defined earlier by Shiffrin and Schneider (1977), automatic processing in listening is a "sequence of nodes that nearly always becomes active in response to a particular input configuration" (pp. 155-156).According to the same authors, this process is activated unconsciously without the necessity of active control or attention by the subject. Similarly, Vandergrift and Goh (2012, pp. 19-21) defined it as the mechanic listeners' capacity to keep up with speech with little attention to the words and modest consciousness about the furnished efforts. This is similar to how we handle our first language. According to the same course, communication in the L1 seems natural and effortless, even if the bottom-up, top-down machine works with great momentum. This is also the case for FL listeners of a high proficiency level, depending on how much they master the foreign language and to which extent the topic is familiar to them.

Conversely, medium and lower-level listeners cannot deal automatically with the language because of their limited knowledge of it. Instead, they must focus consciously on some aspects of the input or learn to selectively attend to essential elements of meaning as salient content words (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 19).

The Controlled Processing, on the other hand, was believed by Shiffrin and Schneider (1977) to use "a temporary sequence of nodes activated under the control of and through attention by the subject" (p. 156). More precisely, it deals with anything that seems difficult to grasp by FL listeners in a speech stream and needs to be processed with much control and consciousness. This includes difficult words or unfamiliar subjects, for which the listener needs more time to understand the connection between these words and their relationship to the topic. But what must be experienced through controlled processing may upscale to the automatic processing once successfully processed, understood and memorized (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 20).

By way of illustration, when I first tried to use a computer many years ago, I remember being hyper-focused on every component, every stage of use, and every piece of information. Everything appeared complicated and important enough to warrant careful consideration. Several years have passed since then, during which I gained sufficient experience and knowledge about computers and Internet use. The complexity of these issues has continued to decrease to the point where it now appears very distant. So, what used to require my undivided attention and control has gradually become easy, familiar, and, most of the time, successful through practice. This example approximates how listening is processed in the FL listening class. In other words, the more we practise language and are exposed to the features of natural speech, the less we use the controlled and give way to the automatic treatment, and thus the best listeners we become.

But as listening to FL speech is, by definition, a difficult task, listeners will more or less experience difficulties in understanding the meaning of what they hear, even at an advanced level of proficiency. Besides, since language is a complex system of words and sentences combined in endless options, it is quite impossible, even for the best listeners, to not experience comprehension falls and, therefore, need to use controlled processing (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Moreover, the good functioning of listening cognitive processes relies on two other significant elements: long-term and short-term memories. If the first is defined as a bank of information, including listeners' prior knowledge and life experiences organized as schemata adequate for top-down processing; the second, also called working memory, lasts for only a few seconds while the sounds are being segmented into words or larger chunks of meaningful speech in coordination with long-term memory (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 20). Listeners' capacity to hold words in the working memory depends on their level of proficiency. In other words, the higher the level of competence, the better the learners' performances in the gradual conservation and processing of more meaningful speech chunks.

According to Baddeley (2003), the working memory functions through a system of executive control responsible for planning, coordinating the flow of information and retrieving knowledge from long-term memory (as cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). The efficacy and speed of execution of this system depend primarily on listeners' acquaintance with what they hear (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 20). This makes us remember more or less quickly and easily the lyrics of a song that we already know (which implies that our cognitive processor already processed it) than the date of birth or the telephone number of a new friend.

Besides, McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod (1983, p. 144) discovered that most automatic processing occurs incidentally during normal communication activities, whereas

most controlled processing occurs when performing new language skills that necessitate a high degree of focused attention (as cited by Jannejad et al., 2012). They stated that developing the skills required to deal with complex tasks such as language processing entails developing a set of well-learned, automatic processes so that controlled processes can be freed up for new tasks. Because too much-controlled processing can lead to overload and breakdown, automatic processing is essential for comprehension (Jannejad et al., 2012).

All in all, we retain that the listeners use more automatic processing, relying more on their long-term memory at a high level of proficiency. This gives more width to the working memory to exploit new information and more time to decode the heard message. Also, it will reinforce long-term memory and give way to automatic processing, which is initially the result of advanced listening proficiency levels.

1.4.3. Perception, Parsing and Utilization

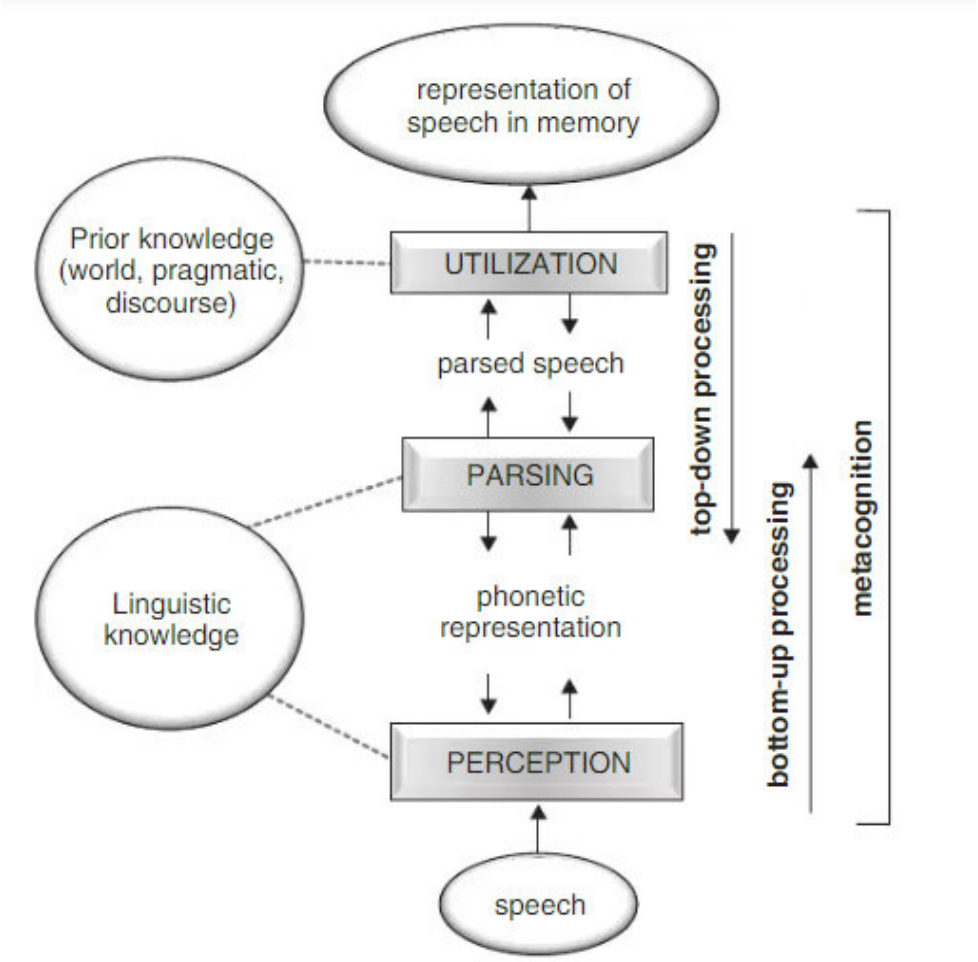
Earlier, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) presented three strategies in light of processing, including metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective. The actions students take to be consciously attentive to a spoken text and to track and assess their understanding of the text are called metacognitive strategies. A variety of sub-techniques, including elaboration, inference, and translation, are included in the cognitive strategies (e.g.: *clarification* and *cooperation*). The social strategies include 'questions for clarification' and 'cooperation'. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) used these strategies as a foundation to present their model based on three similar listening strategies: perception, parsing and utilization (see Figure 1).

However, in one of his most widely cited works, *Cognitive Psychology and its Implications*, John R. Anderson (1995) was the first to present a wholly distinct and quite significant perspective on cognitive processes comprised of the same sequence of phases:

perception, *parsing*, and *utilisation*. Since then, several authors have advocated this process. Probably the most pertinent work was that of Christine Goh (2000).

Figure 1

Cognitive Processes and Knowledge Sources in Listening Comprehension



Note. This model was based on Levelet's (1993) on the different cognitive listening processes. From *Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening* (p.27), by L. Vandergrift and C. M. Goh, 2012, London: Routledge. Copyright 2012 by Taylor & Francis. Reprinted with permission. Adapted from: https://www.academia.edu/34712277/Teaching_and_learning_SL

Goh investigated the problem of listening comprehension experienced by some ESL students. The learners' assertions during the perception phase could be summarized as follows: (1) failure in recognizing words; (2) neglecting following parts of speech; (3) failure

in splitting what they hear into words; and, obviously, concentration problems. When they are exposed to FL speech, the perception starts with an 'initial' segmentation procedure using bottom-up processing to identify phonemes, pauses, and acoustic emphases and hold them in the *working* memory.

This happens through a string of procedures as to (1) attend to the text for the exclusion of other sounds in the environment; (2) note similarities, pauses and acoustic emphases relevant to a particular language; and then (3) grouping these according to the categories of the identified language (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 21).

After, still under the first stage, another type of segmentation occurs. The stored data should be divided into meaningful units. However, segmentation is quite a difficult task, which, if not mastered, will undoubtedly lead to comprehension failure. One reason for this is that the boundaries between the words of the heard input are not clear enough due to stress patterns, elisions and reduced forms. As mentioned in the previous sections, the other reason is that English speech is widely connected to L1. More precisely, segmentation skills are known to be language specific and are acquired at an early age within the listeners' L1, which puts any practice of FL segmentation strategies under the inevitable and unintentional influence of L1 rules, especially at lower and intermediate levels (Lynch, 2009).

Once a phonetic representation of what has been stored in the working memory is built, perception ends and parsing 'the second phase' starts. While being held in the working memory, there is an appeal for long-term memory to supply those phonetic representations with potential adequate words (word candidates), according to meaning and some cues like word onset, perceptual salience or *phonotactic* conventions (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 22).

The speed of this procedure depends primarily on the abilities and skills of the learner: the more skilful the learner, the faster the cognitive processes. As well, the breadth of the

words' schemata increases in parallel with the listeners' level of proficiency. Field (2008b) advanced three factors responsible for making learners more efficient in identifying content words, including (1) the great importance of meaning in parsing; (2) the number of the stored content words which are more likely to bear meaning than function words; (3) and because of the working memories limitations of FL listeners. Just put differently, Goh (2000) summarized learners' difficulties during the parsing stage in the following three points: (1) forgetting quickly what has been said; (2) inability to form a mental representation from words heard; and (3) missing the meaning of what follows because of what was missed earlier.

The last phase is utilization. Following top-down processing, the meaningful retained data is related to the schemata of the long-term memory, where pragmatic and prior knowledge will be added to the linguistic information which initially resulted from the parsing phase. During this stage, listeners try to build a conceptual interpretation of speech to which they will refer all the emerging interpretations of the heard message and go beyond the literal meaning (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, pp. 17-23). Again, this phase depends mainly on the FL learners' level of proficiency. Advanced learners seem to go beyond this phase entirely automatically. However, when words are understood but not the message or when there is a sort of confusion or incongruence of the message, then listeners need to revise their inferences of what they heard and turn towards more controlled processing to solve miscomprehension dilemmas (Goh, 2000).

The relation between the already cited cognitive processes is reciprocal. At each phase, the cognitive process is influenced by its precedent process and affects the following one so rapidly in a fully automatic fluent speech, as reported by Vandergrift and Goh (2012).

1.4.4. Metacognition

To be good listeners, learners need to become able to rely on themselves and monitor what they hear according to whom they are listening to and in what situation they are in. This was precisely the essence of metacognition. According to Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986), it was seen as *the seventh sense* in learning (Cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Learners' autonomy and consciousness of their learning are highly underlined under this process. Lynch refers to metacognition as listeners' capacity to plan, monitor and evaluate their comprehension (2009, p. 160). Similarly, Goh (2008) defined it as the listener's awareness of the cognitive processes involved in comprehension and the capacity to oversee, regulate and direct these processes.

Earlier, Flavell (1976) was the pioneer of the issue of metacognition as he was the first to attempt to generate a formal model of this issue. Flavell believed this process to be at the origin of the ability of listeners to become *agents* of their thinking. He defined it as one's knowledge concerning one's cognitive processes and products or anything related to them and the "active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes concerning the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective" (Flavell, 1976, p. 232). In more simple words, metacognition is defined by Vandergrift and Goh as:

> ...our ability to think about our own thinking or *cognition*, and, by extension, to think about how we process information for a range of purposes and manage the way we do it. It is the ability to step back, as it were, from what occupies our mind at a particular moment in time to analyse and evaluate what we are thinking. (2012, pp. 83-84)

Another definition that is likely to be more straightforward is that provided by Wenden (1998), who presented metacognition as "the part of long-term memory that contains

what learners know about learning" (p. 45). Therefore, listening according to this process is more than simply receiving sounds. It implies more complex mechanisms and flexibility to go back in time according to the situation and our thinking. In addition, Vandergrift and Goh believed that the control dimension of metacognition involved using cognitive processes to effectively regulate listening comprehension, including planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluation (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, PP. 84-5).

Many authors have emphasised the importance of metacognition in listening. They emphasised the importance of metacognitive strategies in improving the effectiveness of listening and the overall quality of learning a foreign language and a second language. (Lynch, 2009; Wenden, 1998; Vandergrift and Goh, 2012; Goh, 2008).

Wenden (1998) summarised the metacognitive strategies' significance in four points. First, he emphasized faster learner learning and the remarkable integration of knowledge. Second, these strategies attest to the constant reception of the message and its ability to cope with all situations. Third, learners are expected to gain self-confidence when seeking help from partners, teachers or their families. Finally, listeners acquire a learning autonomy that allows them to observe and self-evaluate themselves.

Listening metacognition has been widely developed in language classrooms over the last decades. Much remains to be said about the metacognitive process and its usefulness for FL learning and instruction. But it would be necessary first to define the different sources of knowledge that learners can use while listening to a foreign language. A summary of these resources will be presented in the next section.

1.5. The Factors of Listening Success

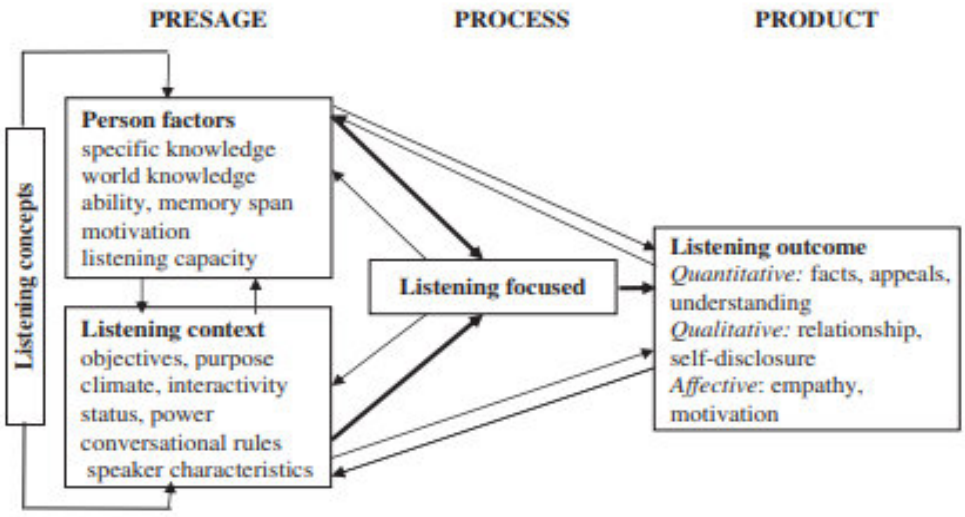
Drawing on our personal experience as a prior FL student and a present EFL teacher, we would like to confirm the challenging aspect of the listening task. Complaints generally

turn around the lack of vocabulary, absence of deep concentration, short listening memory, unfamiliar accent, incapacity to follow speech speed, the need for more than one listening, and culturally unfamiliar subjects.

Among the most influential works on the factors that influence listening is that of Imhof and Janusik's systems model of listening (2006). Vandergrift and Goh saw this model as a useful heuristic for further understanding the listening construct (2012, p. 57). Imhof and Janusik explained the interrelationships between person factors and listening contexts; and how they influence the listening process quality and its results in terms of comprehension, learning, motivation, relationships, and self-efficacy (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

Systems Model of Listening



Note. This model was based on Bigg's (1999) work and shows the person and listening context factors influencing the listening process. From Development and validation of the Imhof-Janusik listening concepts inventory to measure listening conceptualization differences between cultures, by M. Imhof and L. A. Janusik, 2006, *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 35(2), p. 81. London: Routledge. Copyright 2006 by Taylor & Francis.

Those results, in turn, may influence the factors that affect listeners' self-efficacy and their further will (or abstinence) to process succeeding input. They are divided into quantitative results and qualitative results. Respectively, the first kind of results shows how much information the listener gained from the listening situation regarding comprehension and learning. Results of the second are rather concerned with the qualitative facet of listening, which affects, for instance, the way listeners react to a FL speaker (with sympathy or antipathy), the degree of motivation to undergo the conversation, and the kind of attention and efforts deployed to understand and answer the speaker.

In the coming sections, we will detail the different person factors in terms of the cognitive and affective factors that influence the listening process. Further, we will demonstrate the various contextual factors influencing listening in terms of interactive listening and formal/informal learning contexts.

1.5.1. Cognitive Factors

As previously demonstrated in Imhof and Janusik's model (2006), the person factors are divided into two parts: cognitive and affective. However, both are important to listening success, whether at a macro level (e.g., motivation, expanded effort and monitoring) or a micro level (e.g., capacity of the working memory).

The cognitive factors comprise six types of knowledge: (1) linguistic knowledge (vocabulary, syntax and discourse knowledge); (2) pragmatic knowledge; (3) prior knowledge; (4) metacognitive knowledge; (5); L1 listening ability (6) and sound discrimination ability (see Figure2), which we aim to explain in the following sections.

1.5.1.1. Linguistic knowledge

Linguistic knowledge, as mentioned earlier, includes vocabulary, syntax and discourse knowledge. Vocabulary may seem to be the most crucial element in the success of FL

education. Confirmation or denial of this hypothesis finds its place in more sophisticated and precise empirical work. Although research has not yet established the degree of the link between vocabulary and listening success, the few existing works have been highly effective in explaining vocabulary significance in FL / SL listening. According to Nation and Newton (2009), vocabulary must be given special attention if it is a question of substantial learning. This vocabulary is meant to be a high-frequency or specialized vocabulary to ensure that learners will still need it in their use of English. For it to be prominent, it can be put in some privileged places in the text where most information occurs (Herman et al., 1987); or briefly pointed out during the storytelling (Elley, 1989, as cited in Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 49).

Counter to this view, some researchers presented vocabulary as having a minimum weight in listening comprehension(Mecartty, 2000) and that FL listeners can compensate for the lack of vocabulary by employing other strategies such as inferencing successfully what was not understood based on what was already understood (Bonk, 2000; Lund, 1991). This needs an accurate linguistic “threshold” on the part of FL learners to be able to compensate for gaps in listening (Graham, Santos, & Vanderplank, 2010). However, more careful research showing the importance of such a linguistic threshold remains to be explored.

According to the related literature, the syntactic/ grammatical knowledge role in FL learning proved to be of great significance. With respect to FL listening, however, the literature has shown a less influential role of syntactic knowledge in the success of FL listening (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Field, 2008b).

Moreover, interest in introducing discourse knowledge into foreign language teaching has evolved significantly over the last four decades. Discourse analysis has been initiated as a branch of linguistics encompassing linguistics, philosophy, sociology, psychology, anthropology, cognitive science, and so on. It is a global discipline that functionalists have

described as the study of "every aspect of the use of language" (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 45). Its theories, such as cohesion, coherence and relevance, have been applied to teaching foreign languages and have proved their importance for improving the interpretation of languages, especially for writing, reading and listening comprehension.

In listening, discourse knowledge refers to the awareness of the type of information found in listening texts, how they might be organized and how listeners can use them to facilitate comprehension (Dunkel 1986). Examples of discourse signalling cues, as suggested by Vandergrift and Goh, are: (1) previews like *First* and *let's look at*; (2) summarizers as *To sum up so far*; (3) emphasis markers such as *and*, *to repeat*; and (4) logical connectives *first* and *second* (2012, p. 62).

1.5.1.2. Pragmatic Knowledge

This type of knowledge relates to the language listeners' application of cognitive processes to "determine a speaker's intention by elaborating on what they heard, using linguistic, cultural, and contextual information" (Vandergrift & Goh 2012, p. 63). According to the same authors, most research on pragmatic knowledge has been related to the production of speech acts.

However, very little consideration is given to this type of knowledge in language listening comprehension. Drawing on some research findings (Cook & Liddicoat, 2002; Garcia, 2004; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Lebbal, 2018) assumed that most of the related research on the ability to activate pragmatic knowledge during comprehension is tightly associated with listeners' language proficiency. That is to say, listeners with higher proficiency levels are better at processing both contextual and linguistic input, which makes them able to activate their pragmatic knowledge.

1.5.1.3. Prior Knowledge

Prior knowledge encompasses the sum of language learners' experience and knowledge about the World and how it functions. This type of knowledge serves as a conceptual framework for listeners to compensate for what they may miss when listening to FL input and to undergo the difficulties of the listening setting.

The importance of such knowledge in FL listening comprehension was made evident through a number of empirical researches (Long, 1990; Macaro, Vanderplank & Graham, 2005; Vandergrift, 2003a). Skilled listeners develop a sort of "flexibility" in dealing with what they hear since they properly use what they know about a given topic to balance the pitfalls of FL listening situations (Vandergrift, 2003a). However, the misuse of prior knowledge can lead to a loss of meaning to what we hear or to total confusion. Hence, *inflexibility* (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) or *imprudent use* (Macaro et al., 2005) of this knowledge can misinform comprehension efforts when listeners continue to seek reinforcing evidence as the text unfolds. To avoid this situation, the teachers must provide their learners with pre-listening activities helpful in developing an 'advance organizer' responsible for the prediction and the monitoring of their comprehension efforts (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 67)

1.5.1.4. Metacognitive Knowledge

Metacognition has much to do with the degree of conscious control of the cognitive processes which elaborate FL comprehension (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). The examination of the importance of metacognition in listening comprehension, again, has not been widely considered. However, the few found studies depend mainly on comparing listeners' think-aloud strategies between skilled and unskilled listeners (O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In sum, skilled listeners use more metacognitive strategies than less skilled ones.

However, the think-aloud strategy has been criticized by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) on the fact that it represents a kind of simultaneous introspection which may change the nature of the thought processes; since the listener may be reporting a modified version of what actually occurs while thinking. In comparing the think-aloud to the talk-aloud strategies, they wrote:

> In the think aloud procedure, however, the informant encodes the mental processes immediately after they occur and then takes time to describe them to the investigator. Thus, the description is not contemporaneous with the problem solution process, and overtly describing the problem solutions takes longer than solving comparable problems silently. (p.91)

Despite the scarcity of think-aloud protocols, they remain the only reliable method for analysing the various metacognitive processes experienced by FL learners in listening comprehension. Recent studies relied on these protocols and demonstrated that successful listeners rely on a kind of skilful orchestration of strategies to control listening processes and reach comprehension (Vandergrift, 2003a; Graham & Macaro, 2008).

1.5.1.5. L1 Listening Ability

The first experience of FL/L2 learners with listening competence starts within their mother tongue (L1) (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). In other words, every FL/L2 learner is initially a native speaker of a given language (L1). Thus, all learners possess a preliminary conceptual framework of the different listening operations they previously acquired unconsciously, at an early age, or consciously along the way. While listening to a new language, learners use what they have already experienced with L1 to manage the complex cognitive operations of FL in search of understanding. Vandergrift (2006) assumed that both L1 listening comprehension ability and L2 proficiency contributed notably to L2 listening

comprehension ability. This leads us to think that learners' weakness as L2 listeners may be at the origin of their weakness as L1 listeners.

1.5.1.6. Sound Discrimination Ability

Very few writers adopted the question of sound discrimination. In general, there is a belief that weakness in L2 listening ability may result from an anomaly in L1 sound discrimination ability. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) referred to the work of French (2003,p. 68) and argued that phonological memory skills enhance learners' listening abilities and vocabulary learning, especially with children, at a beginning level of language proficiency.

1.5.2. Affective Factors

As seen earlier in Imhof and Janusik's listening systems model (2006), cognitive factors alone are not sufficient to explain what happens in language learners' minds when they practice listening (see Figure 2). Affective factors, in fact, are as much important as their cognitive counterparts. Everything we do, think, dream, our reactions to the outside world and how we see ourselves are all under the double mind-heart control. Affective factors even monitor how we perceive learning, how we respond to each part of the program, and our opinions about our personal abilities and motivation to learn. In what follows, we will describe the three main affective factors: anxiety, self-efficacy and motivation.

1.5.2.1. Anxiety

According to several findings, many reasons contribute to learners' high levels of anxiety (Mills et al., 2006; Horwitz et al., 2009; Horwitz, 2010). Among these, we note mainly: the difficulty commonly associated with learning English as a foreign language; the complexity attributed primarily to the listening task itself; and the EFL listening instruction, which, as noted by Mendelsohn (1994), associates listening with evaluation.

Elaine Horwitz, Michael Horwitz and Joann Cope (1986) are believed to be the pioneers of the theory of Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), which became the bedrock for investigations about anxiety in FL/SL instructional settings. They defined it as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process" (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128).

The theoretical model proposed by Horwitz et al. presented, for the first time, FL Anxiety (FLA) as a unique type exclusively related to language learning and very different from the range of anxiety related to learning in general that Cassady (2010) unified in a term *academic anxiety*. This is probably one of the reasons for some of our learners' poor performance with EFL, even though they are known to be studious learners in other disciplines and vice versa. To put it another way, each student's response to EFL instruction will be unique and will depend on their background knowledge, abilities, perception of the language itself, and response to the teaching method being used.

A flow of definitions subsequently followed the FLA theory presenting anxiety sometimes as a complicated psychological phenomenon (Young, 1992); a psychological tension (Jun Zhang, 2001); or as the negative emotional reaction arousal (MacIntyre, 1999), but all related to FL learning. However, despite the widespread literature about anxiety among language learners, little has been done to provide those learners and their teachers with solutions to alleviate this problem (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, pp. 71). Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) advocated that even if anxiety is generally pointed out as to be debilitating since it 'interferes with acquisition, retention, and production' of the target language (TL), it is not exclusively negative (p. 4). Hence, a certain level of Anxiety can be facilitating and may give learners the *edge* to give the best of themselves as to play more on concentration and be more performing and successful (2012, p. 71).

1.5.2.2. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is believed to be the basis for self-confidence and motivation; and is defined as learners' beliefs about their ability to participate successfully in learning activities (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). On the basis of self-efficacy, learners may be characterized as successful or not, as denoted in the following quotation:

> Listeners with high self-efficacy feel confident about their ability to handle listening situations because they have learned to manage these challenges, based on past experience… On the other hand, listeners with low self-efficacy lack confidence in their listening ability and will hesitate to participate in listening activities for fear of revealing their inadequacies.(p. 71)

The difference is that low self-efficacy listeners credit FL's success in listening to factors beyond their control (Graham, 2006) and thus become less motivated and unable to improve their abilities. In contrast, learners with high self-efficacy are more likely to monitor their listening and will not hesitate to participate in different activities, whether their answers are true or false (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

1.5.2.3. Motivation

Steven McDonough (2007) described motivation as anything that moves us to act, including (1) the reasons behind our will to learn; (2) the strength of our desire to learn; (3) the kind of persons we are, and (4) our estimation of what the task at hand requires of us. Further, he defined it as a dynamic and transitive concept, as shown in the following quotation:

> Motivation is a property of the learner, but it is also a transitive concept: coaches can motivate their clients, teachers can motivate their students. Furthermore, it is dynamic

and changes over time, especially in the usually long-drawn out process of language learning. Motivation is thus remarkably complex. (2007, p. 369)

In the old literature, motivation for language learning was typically restricted to the reasons for learning. McDonough cited the work of Gardner (1985) as the most influential in the field of language learning. It consists of a distinction between two different objectives for learning FL/SL. The first, called *integrative*, depends largely on success and refers to the wish to learn a language to integrate with its speech community. The second, dubbed *instrumental*, is instead matched with the desire to master a given language to use it in ones' own culture (cited in McDonough, 2007, p. 369).

Other works marked the same period but were not exclusively concerned with motivation in language learning. McDonough mentioned Decy and Ryan's (1985) distinction between *intrinsic* motivation (that is generated from within) and *extrinsic* motivation (coming from outside). The same author cited dissimilarity as he referred to the work of Heckhausen (1991), which stands for whether the aim behind learning a language is to strive for success or just avoid failure. An illustration of this might be a student studying EFL in the English department against their will and putting all of their efforts into preventing failure rather than succeeding.

The importance of motivation in foreign language learning has been widely solicited in recent literature. However, little has been done to prove the existence of a relationship between motivation and FL listening development. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) believe confident L2 learners are more motivated, less anxious and possess higher levels of self-efficacy, which may have a major influence over listening to a foreign language. According to the same author, the key to a better proactive, less anxious and successful listener lies in well-established metacognitive instruction. This is because this latter is based on more listening

practice, less evaluation threat and assurance of learners' awareness of their listening processes (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, pp. 72-73).

Recent research was conducted by Art Tsang (2022), who investigated how FL listening motivation was related to overall FL proficiency, interest and self-confidence. He came to the conclusion that the three motivational factors are crucial to young learners' learning of the FL. He also encouraged stakeholders to work together to increase learners' motivation to learn the FL through listening, which is seen as a spoken channel generally "overshadowed by the written channel in reading" (Tsang, 2022, conclusion).

1.5.3. Contextual Factors

Among the six elements of the contextual factors already presented in the Imhof and Janusik model of listening, Vandergrift and Goh focused their intention on the three first factors of the model: listening in informal learning contexts, listening in formal learning contexts, and interactive listening. They believe this latter to be an essential part of listening competence which generally takes place in more informal L2 contexts for language learning with L2 speakers. This type of interaction is susceptible to the nature of the relationship between the interlocutors in terms of age, gender, language proficiency and power relationships (e.g., employer-employee). When anxiety is high, the listener will probably understand little and feel less motivated to take risks to clarify comprehension by fear of losing face.

Listening in informal learning contexts was instead related to the study abroad programs made for the development of listening comprehension, according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012). Recent studies showed that study-abroad learners are more confident in interacting in the target language, as confirmed in research on Spanish learners by Cubillos, Chieffo and Fan (2008) (cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 74). Another study by Moyer

(2006) underlined the significant influence of the listening ability regarding the quantity and quality of language contact (cited in Vandergrift and Goh, 2012, p. 74).

However, listening in formal learning contexts refers to academic settings where the objective behind listening is learning subject matter content in formal classroom contexts. Vandergrift and Goh assumed that research in academic listening was mainly concerned with the characteristics of lectures' and how to make them more comprehensible for learners. In that, Flowerdew and colleagues held a series of studies to investigate the lecture comprehension perceptions, problems and strategies from the standpoint of learners (1992), native-speaking lecturers (1996) and non-native speaking lecturers (2000) (cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Results of this series of research advanced (1) the lecture's speed of delivery, (2) difficulty with course-specific terminology, (3) cultural differences and (4) note-taking skills as the commonly encountered problems.

A more recent study by Miller (2009) on the possible features which may facilitate language learners' comprehension was summarized into: (1) linguistic features as the introduction of uncomplicated language and accent; (2) pedagogical features as, humour, examples, visuals, advance preparation, and organization of the lecture (cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 74).

All in all, to conclude with this section, one may say that the deep analysis of the Imhof and Janusik Model of listening (2006) showed a significant influence of the person and contextual factors over the quality of the cognitive operations and the listening outcome. In other words, this model demonstrated the power of those factors over successful FL/L2 listening comprehension. On the one hand, the cognitive factors, especially vocabulary and L1 listening ability, appear of great importance in FL/L2 listening comprehension. On the other

hand, affective factors are related to the degree of anxiety and willingness to engage in any listening activity.

Furthermore, there is a reciprocal relationship between the person factors, the contextual factors and the different processes (social, cognitive and strategic) a learner may employ when listening to the target language, and how these elements may influence the quality and quantity of listening results (the outcome). In return, this outcome will impact further cognitive factors (e.g., a more reach vocabulary) and affective factors to determine, for instance, the learners' self-efficacy and motivation which will decide upon their openness or resistance to engage in a given FL interaction. This model was like a shifting point in the target language listening literature.

Another model worthy of being cited in this work is Vandergrift and Goh's (2012) "Metacognitive Framework for Listening Instruction", which is the central issue of the coming section.

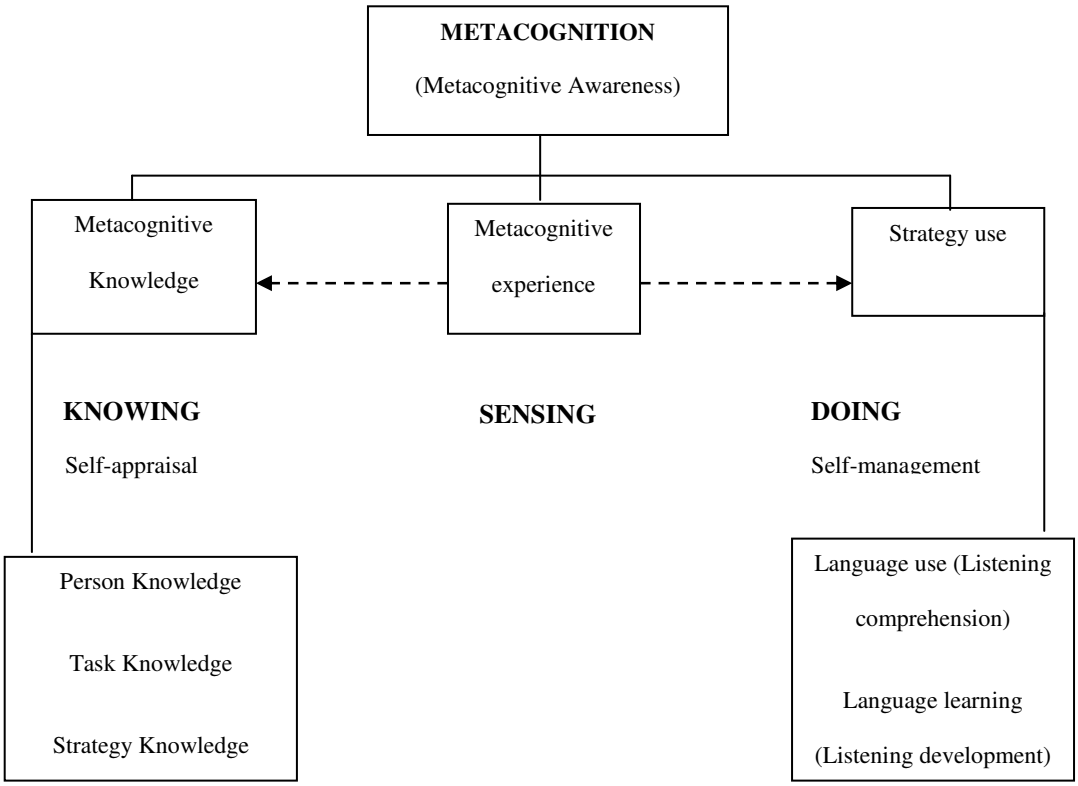
1.6. Vandergrift and Goh Metacognitive Model of Listening Instruction

Learner-centred listening is the cornerstone of the Vandergrift and Goh metacognitive approach; one of the three primary orientations of language teaching in the last fifty years, compared to text-oriented and communication-oriented listening instruction.

This model aims to develop self-regulatory listeners who are conscious of their own learning processes and the demands of their learning tasks. Additionally, the current method requires listening skills to be developed outside the classroom and students to learn how to gain from the knowledge and experiences of their teachers and peers.

Figure 3

Vandergrift and Goh Metacognitive Framework for Listening Instruction



Note. Adapted from *Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening* (p.85), by L. Vandergrift and C. M. Goh, 2012, London: Routledge. Copyright 2012 by Taylor & Francis. Reprinted with permission.

Vandergrift and Goh's model serves two main functions in language learning: (1) self-appraisal, which stands for knowledge about the various cognitive states and processes; and (2) self-management, which means control of cognition. Those two functions are expressed into three elements: experience, knowledge, and strategies (see Figure 3). In other words, metacognition helps learners become self-knowing, self-directed, and self-managed in their learning (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 85). The following subsections will highlight how those three elements function and the advantages of metacognitive instruction.

While listening to a foreign language, we may face an unfamiliar word in the stream of words, so we try to recall a strategy we have already employed that proved fruitful in a similar

situation. This refers to *experience* according to Vandergrift and Goh (2012, p. 86).Metacognitive knowledge is divided into person, task and strategy knowledge. The first represents knowledge about how we learn and what affects our learning. In other words, it deals with what kind of learners we are, what may hinder our learning, and what are the limits of our problem-solving ability.

For instance, if we typically have more trouble understanding American English than British English, we might start to believe that American English is simpler and better suited to our tendencies and levels of competence. As a result, we might begin to think that we are poor listeners of British English and should avoid anything that involves engaging in this language.

The second type of metacognitive knowledge, dubbed *task*, is concerned with knowledge about "the purpose, demands and nature of learning tasks" and includes "how to approach and complete a real-life task" (Vandergrift & Goh 2012, p. 86). For instance, if the teacher realizes that his/her learners have some difficulties in recognizing spoken numbers he/she may opt to emphasize listening to business news or anything which contain lot of numbers.

The third type of knowledge is strategy knowledge. It implies knowing the most adequate strategy for accomplishing a specific goal. For example, the belief that *guessing* is a good strategy for understanding a spoken message in case we face unfamiliar words. Another example is to judge that simply asking somebody to slow down his speech speed or repeat their utterance is a suitable listening strategy. Important to notice here is the difference between knowing a strategy, which is our concern in this section, and applying a strategy referred to as 'strategy use', which will be clearly demonstrated in the coming section.

Furthermore, strategy use refers to the individual's capacity to use appropriate strategies to make learning 'easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-regulated, more effective

or more transferable to new situations' (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 89). Obviously, learners use strategies to achieve comprehension goals when they fail to understand the heard message. Some of those strategies are relevant for real-time listening comprehension, while others help learners improve listening over time.

1.6.1. How does Metacognition Function

Presented as *metacognition in action*, Vandergrift and Goh offered a clear demonstration of the active processes that escort one's thoughts while listening to L2 messages. They believed that for metacognition to be fruitful, listeners must not only think about their thinking (cognition) but also act on their thoughts and feelings to construct a 'deeper understanding of themselves as learners and the nature of the task at hand' (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, pp. 92-93).

We can see metacognition in action when listeners reflect on their learning before, during or after the listening task. Metacognition can also be seen when language learners show awareness of gaps in understanding and try to fill them using what they think to be the best strategies for that given situation. However, metacognition in action is not exclusively an individual deed; learners may ask others (e.g., classmates, teachers, interlocutors) for clarification or help to solve misunderstanding problems. A specificity of metacognition activities proposed by those two authors is to help learners enrich individual learning through peer dialogue and cooperation (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, pp. 101-102).

1.6.2. The Advantages of Vandergrift and Goh Metacognitive Instruction

As previously mentioned, metacognitive instruction is learner-oriented, focusing mainly on teaching FL/L2 listeners how to select cognitive strategies and how to use them to solve understanding problems. It deals with both cognitive and social variables which influence listening success with the assistance of the teacher or some proficient peers; this is

known as scaffolding (Vandergrift and Goh, 2022). According to Hossein Bozorgian (2012), metacognitive instruction is used to "reduce the complexity of listening comprehension for less-skilled listeners" through the development and facilitation of the process of listening comprehension (p. 1). Goh (2010) believes that metacognitive activities enable learners to engage in self-appraisal and self-management activities supported by teachers (cited in Vandergrift & Goh 2012, p. 97).

Hence, metacognitive instruction highlights the hidden aspect of the listening skill and offers learners insights on their listening in a way to improve it. Also, it presents teachers with helpful information on their learners' individual learning styles, abilities and goals. Moreover, this type of instruction is meant to be applied within the classroom and outside, since learners may continue to benefit from the metacognitive strategies' support to develop their listening abilities in formal and informal settings.

1.7. Nation and Newton One-way/Two-way Listening Strategies.

Besides the Vandergrift and Goh (2012) model of listening strategy, Nation and Newton (2009) suggested another distinction. This was based on the direction of the interaction: one-way listening or two-way listening. While the first is a result of conventional listening beliefs and focused on information transfer (transactional listening), the second is the product of more recent listening theories that prioritize preserving social relations (interactional listening) (p. 40). They argued that if one-way listening falls short of capturing the depth and dynamics of listening as they take place in normal interpersonal interactions; two-way listening more accurately captures the features of real conversation and promotes the development of communicative competence.

This distinction resulted in another division related to Nation and Newton's (2009) listening strategies, including communication and listening strategies. The first type is supposed to assist comprehension, like making predictions before listening, listening

selectively and knowing how to interrupt politely. The second type is rather concerned with noticing language forms in the input, like seeking clarification, listening for patterns, and focused listening (p. 52).

1.8. Listening Activities

Another critical issue that demands careful thought from teachers in EFL classrooms is the choice and design of listening activities. A group of academics from Baliksire University in Turkey claim that if teachers do not adopt, modify, or change listening activities for their students, their listening ability ends up being their most significant source of anxiety and discouragement (Yavuz et al., 2015). They suggested three types of activities to make listening skills digestible for learners: (1) at word level, (2) at sentence level and four meaning-based activities mainly drawn on Ur (1984; as cited in Yavuz et al., 2015, p. 931).

1.8.1. Repetition at Word Level

In the early stages, the students need to practice the target language to hear and pronounce isolated words as a native speaker would, without the distortions or blurs that frequently appear in the context of natural speech. At word level, in the early stages, the students need practice in hearing and saying the sounds of isolated words as they are ideally pronounced by a native speaker, without the distortions or blurs which commonly occur within the context of natural speech. The type of exercises which fits the best this level is repetition of what they hear, check to see if it is in English, and determine whether they are hearing the same or different utterances (Yavuz, et al., 2015, p. 931)

1.8.2. Repetition at Sentence Level

At this stage, it becomes simpler for students to identify colloquial and spontaneous speech. Therefore, the exercise types at this level consist of (1) repetition (but this time, the length of the utterance is either the phrase or sentence they have heard), (2) identifying word

divisions to determine the spoken and written forms of the utterances, (3) identifying the stressed or unstressed words in a sentence, and (4) dictation in order to gauge the student's understanding of the sounds and utterances.

1.8.3. Listening and Making no Response

This activity aims to enrich the learners' listening comprehension skills without having to provide a spoken answer. They may include (1) choosing or ordering pictures (as they are mentioned in the spoken or recorded text); (2) drawing or filling diagrams and maps; and (3) listening to short stories or excerpts from movies and TV shows, provided they are short to avoid learner boredom or loss of concentration

1.8.4. Listening and Making Short Responses

As their name indicates, listening and making short responses activities require the learners to elaborate on some short answers like true/false. This type of exercise fits better elementary or weak-communication levels.

1.8.5. Listening and making long responses

This type of activities requires learners to understand the meaning of a whole sequence of utterances. Activities of this type include: (1) predictions to guess the meaning of the text or guessing what is going to happen next; (2) filling the gaps in a dialogue or text while listening; (3) summarizing what learners have understood from the listening.

1.8.6. Listening as a Basis for Study and Discussion

The last type of activities encompasses four varieties of exercises. The first is called *problem-solving*; learners can listen to the text as many times as needed to discuss the problem mentioned in the text, individually or in groups. The second type is the *jigsaw* activity; learners are divided into groups and supplied with half parts of the listening text, which they have to join together to extract the main idea or come to a conclusion. The third

type stands for 'complementary texts', requiring learners to complete information on a chart or diagram. And the fourth is about *interpretative listening*, which involves learners in some interpretations of the speakers' personalities and relationships.

To be effective, the authors suggested that these activities must be selected and designed carefully according to "the appropriate level and with the appropriate students" to promote students listening capacities and avoid discouraging them (Yavuz et al., 2015, p. 932). And as we can notice, except for the no-response type, most activities engage learners in both listening and speaking. This leads us to conclude that, if well established, these activities may lead to developing both skills.

Nation and Newton (2009) proposed nine additional meaning-focused activities that are comparable but not identical. The first type is listening to stories that fit students' proficiency level and contain only a few difficult words. Oral cloze activities form the second type, where the listeners listen to a story which the teacher pauses after about 50 words and ask them to guess the next word.

The third type embodies picture ordering which consists of the listeners ordering a set of pictures based on a description or a story involving the events in those pictures. "*What is it?"* is the fourth type, where the students are supposed to listen to a presentation where information is diffused gradually until they can guess what it is about. The fifth type concerns the "same or different" exercise, which can be practised in pairs and in which a pair member describes their picture to the partner, who is supposed to decide whether the pictures are identical or different. Listen and draw is another kind of exercises where the students are asked, based on the description they listen to, to draw, colour or label parts of the given picture.

The seventh category, dubbed the *padded* questions, requires students to listen rather than speak during lengthy subject introductions. The last type is dubbed *information* transfer,

which, as the name indicates, requires learners to reproduce the message they hear in a new form, as with the listen and draw activity. This type is supposed to support learners to listen strategically for important information, provide opportunities to learn new vocabulary and grammatical items, and develop one's production (Nation & Newton, 2009, pp. 43-49).

1.9. Supporting Listening

To help learners while they listen to a foreign language, Nation and Newton (2009) recommended giving them some temporary bridge. A list of words or images that go along with the words might make up this bridge, for instance, so that students can see them as they listen. Students will use these words and images the first time they try to understand what/who they listen to.

However, the bridge is no longer needed and can be removed as long as they possess the knowledge required to reach the target. In this regard, Nation and Newton (2009) advanced three key strategies for providing learners with the necessary bridge: prior experience, guidance during listening, and working in groups to support listening. The first method entails providing *prior experience* with certain textual elements. This can be achieved through:

> … rehearsing the text beforehand, using a simple version first, repeating the listening, using language or ideas already within learners' experience while increasing the skill demands of a task, and pre-teaching items. The topic of the text can come from the learners' previous experience and may be based on a first language text. (2009, p. 46)

The same authors concentrated on repetitively using the same theme over several days and highlighted the value of referring to learners' experiences. Focusing repeatedly on the same theme will primarily aid students in deepening their understanding of the material that will be used to support listening activities.

This might be accomplished by including instructional activities that aid in text comprehension. The authors recommended a few activities, such as (1) 'completion activities', which consist of filling in the gaps to complete the missing parts of the text; (2) 'ordering activities' that require learners to put the different items in the correct order according to the text; (3) answering questions that cover the main points of the input; and (4) information transfer diagrams to be completed or images to be labelled (2009, p. 47).

The third recommendation is to prioritize group work while listening to the target language. This provides an opportunity to practice the negotiation of meaning throughout the activity. Examples include having students work in groups to take notes on the text or allowing them to discuss the material during designated course times so that those who missed something during the listening sequence can keep up with what is going on.

Furthermore, Miller identified seven characteristics of an effective listening activity: (1) the listening text has to be brief (no more than 1-3 minutes); (2) the purpose for listening has to be identified and shared with learners; (3) the listening text is supported by visual clues; (4) the response to the activity must be simple, easy to complete, intermittent with aural cues and indicate comprehension of the listening cue; (5) the listening text is repeated several times to assure the objectives of the activity; (6) the activity provides immediate feedback; (7) the activity has to be motivating (relevant, interesting, challenging and success-oriented to engender confidence) (Miller, 2010, p. 2).

1.10. Listening Assessment

As far as listening is concerned, three distinctions should be made to differentiate: teaching from testing, testing from evaluation, and evaluation from assessment (Davies & Pearse, 2009). For the first pair, teachers sometimes "convert teaching into a kind of continuous test" and rely heavily on language correction, ignoring the information and confusing accuracy with effective communication and fluency. Such confusion is supposed to

inhibit students' ability and confidence in using English effectively. However, teachers are constantly encouraged to evaluate their own teaching and their learners' performance and progress (Davies & Pearse, 2009).

The second pair, testing and evaluation, may appear interchangeable in terms of meaning and use in other languages. Still, it is not the case in English, as explained by those authors. They stated that evaluation is a more general concept that can be used to estimate the progress of teaching in general, teaching materials, learning and even tests. A test is instead designed for a specific purpose based on a number of activities and tasks, each with clear objectives (Davies & Pearse, 2009, pp. 170-171). Regarding the last distinction, assessment is used to define a variety of learning evaluation which is "based on class participation, progress tests, homework, and projects rather than final test alone" (2009, p. 171).

Moreover, concerning Assessment, J.J. Wilson (2012, p. 136) introduced other types of distinctions. First, he differentiated between the kind of assessment which evaluates what has been learned over a period of time, including *placement* tests, *progress* tests and achievement tests, from the types of tests which measure overall ability *proficiency* tests. Another distinction includes formative and summative assessments. The first are process-oriented, designed as a diagnostic tool to support listeners' progress and supposed to cover the ongoing type of assessment, which takes place informally every time students engage in listening. The second are formal and results-oriented, by which students always receive a grade as those required by schools, colleges and governments.

Drawing on the work of Gary Buck (2001), Lynch noted that generally, all the literature that targets test construction concentrated on one-way listening in non-interactive settings for reasons of convenience and economy (2009, p. 124). Further, he cited the work of George Yule and his colleagues as one of the most marking research studies which addressed

the issue of "interactive listening assessment". It focused on assessing the quality of the product of information-gap tasks dubbed "the Communicative Outcome (CO) system" (Lynch, 2009, p. 125).

Indisputably, two conditions must be ensured when preparing a test: validity and reliability. To be valid, a test must first meet only the forms and uses that learners have practised in the course syllabus (*content validity*); and second, it uses only exercises and tasks similar to those already experienced by the learners and fit the general objectives and methodology of the course(*construct validity*) (Davies & Pearse, 2009, p. 172).According to Wilson (2012,p. 136), it is not fair to assign students low grades if they fail in speaking correctly, if the test initially targeted the listening skill.

Put differently, a student may have understood the heard passage (good listening) but expressed difficulties in responding verbally (speaking skill). Reliability, however, stands for "the certainty that the test will produce consistent results no matter who is making it or what mood they are in" (Wilson, 2012, p. 136).It deals with the extent to which the results of the test are trustable in terms of the unambiguousness of the instructions; the accuracy of the instructions which delimits and guides the learners' answers (e.g., short/long answers, phrases/words); and the absence of errors as when the learners are supposed to "select the best answer –a, b, c, d, there should not actually be two or more acceptable answers" (Davies & Pearse, 2009, p. 173). According to the same authors, reliability concerns the way the test can be marked objectively, in addition to its length and how it is administered.

Furthermore, in addition to conventional or traditional tests, there are *alternatives to tests*. Lynch (2009) assumed that in addition to selected-response assessments (e.g., true /false or multiple choice), constructed-response assessments (e.g., gap-filling, short-answer and performance tasks) and personal-response assessments (e.g., portfolios, self- or peer

evaluation) are alternative to traditional tests (p. 126). These are mainly built on real-world contexts or simulations and foster creativity, higher-level thinking and problem-solving. Self-assessment is believed to be one of the most critical types of assessment because it allows the learner to work independently and improve, in the long term, outside the classroom environment (Wilson, 2012, p. 141).

However, Irene Thompson insisted on combining self-assessment with traditional tests for validity to be reached (as cited in Lynch, 2009, p. 126). Overall, this type of evaluation is still problematic because it depends on the student's capacity for self-evaluation and whether the teacher accepts it as a valid method of measurement (Wilson, 2012, pp. 141-142).

Conclusion

Overall, there has been a significant shift toward reconsidering listening, challenging the notion that this skill is merely passive or receptive (Anderson & Lynch, 1988). However, the question of listening remained only modestly explored because of how challenging it is compared to the extensive literature on English teaching in general—even less on English as a foreign language. Investigating the complex cognitive operations that go into how sounds are detected, analysed, listed, and then memorised requires a thorough examination that is not always apparent to teachers and researchers or expressible by learners. In the same way, testing listening is challenging. It demands high accuracy and precision to evaluate students' listening capacity solely as a receptive skill and avoid conflating it with the likely deficiencies in the productive aspects (speaking or writing).Yet, the productive aspect of the language (speaking) must also be explored in order to achieve communication. Exploring listening alone is just one facet of the coin. The following chapter is therefore devoted to EFL speaking.

CHAPTER TWO

TEACHING SPEAKING

Introduction

For a long time, the speaking skill has hardly been neglected in FL classrooms, despite the broad interest it covered in the methodological debate. The mastery of this skill has been recognised globally as an essential ingredient in the English language for international communication (Rao, 2019). Since then, there has been a radical shift in the speaking issue, which has transitioned from "an undervalued skill" (Bygate, 1987, p. vii) to become the essence of interactive communication and the primary concern of the relatively new literature (Brown, 1991; Brown, 2001; Lindsay and Knight, 2006; Madrid & Mclaren, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009; Rocío, 2012; Thornbury, 2013; Palmer, 2014; Rao, 2019).

The purpose of this chapter is to present the speaking issue, beginning with a briefing of some of the most important definitions, then moving on to the reasons for teaching speaking, its challenging aspect, speaking activities and the criteria for their design. The final section of this chapter discusses how to approach correcting, assessing, and testing speaking.

2.1. What is Speaking

Martin Bygate was among the pioneers of the ESL teaching-learning binary issue. He held the opinion that as long as almost everyone can speak and, hence, takes this faculty too much for granted, speaking as a skill deserves the same amount of attention as literary skills in both first and second languages (1987, p.vii).He later defined it as "the vehicle *par excellence"* of social solidarity, social ranking, professional advancement, and business. He considered speaking, in general, as the medium of language learning and described its importance according to four aspects: psychological, social, professional and intellectual (1987, p. vii). Thus, the psychological aspect relates to learners' confidence in performing basic transactions. The social aspect deals with the preservation and gain of social solidarity and social ranking since people are generally judged and may gain or lose friends according to

how they speak. The professional aspect is related to the crucial role speaking plays in advancement and business success. Last, speaking is considered a skill that deserves much attention and consideration in both L1 and L2, which determines the intellectual aspect.

However, despite some similarities between the two contexts of ESL and EFL, there are many significant differences. As Brown (2001) demonstrated, the students in an ESL setting are likely to speak a variety of languages and be fully assimilated into the target language by residing in its society; however, in an EFL environment, students are typically monolingual and from the same nation. Different contexts, therefore, require different approaches.

Subsequently, in a more general context as in teaching English to speakers of other languages *TESOL*, Lindsay and Knight (2006) listed the various circumstances in which a person might feel the need or duty to speak a first or a foreign language. They wrote:

> We speak for many reasons- to be sociable, because we want something, because we want other people to do something, to do something for someone else, to respond to someone else, to express our feelings or opinion about something, to exchange information, to refer to an action or event in the past, present, or future, the possibility of something happening, and so on. (2006, p. 58)

Accordingly, the first and foreign languages' objectives for communicating successfully are believed akin. Also, we can clearly see that the primary goal of speaking a foreign language is to communicate and interact in this language, which does not just settle for a few grammar rules. In this respect, Scott Thornbury (2013) advanced that "knowing a language and being able to speak it are not synonymous" (p. iv). He explained that for generations of books of oral English, the main issue remained "how to vocalize grammar" instead of considering speaking as a skill which needs to be mastered to reach fluency (2013, p. iv).

Similarly, Bailey and Savage (1994)believed speaking to be a “central skill”, the most demanding of the four skills, and “an activity requiring the integration of many subsystems”(pp. 6-7).As seen by Brown (2001), speaking is an interactive process of meaning creation that involves the production, reception, and processing of information. Similarly, Boonkit (2010) advances speaking as a productive skill that learners need to develop in order to communicate fluently (Rao, 2019; Nation & Newton, 2009). All things considered, speaking a foreign language is a crucial element for communication and so deserves much consideration on the part of EFL scholars, teachers and learners.

2.2. Reasons for Teaching Speaking

The speaking significance has taken a large part in the related literature. Far from the foreign language concern, speaking instruction is considered crucial for the development of human interaction in general, starting with L1. Erik Palmer (2014) fostered the importance of teaching listening and speaking even to native speakers. He made a good analogy between how a fish considers the water in which it lives and how we generally consider teaching listening and speaking. The fish does not realize the importance of water and is not even aware of its existence as a separate entity. Similarly, because listening and speaking are profoundly melted in so many aspects of our lives, we take them for granted and ignore their importance as “the foundation of so much of human interaction” (Palmer, 2014, p. 9).

And when it comes to the foreign language, Jeremy Harmer (2007, p. 123) assumes the existence of three reasons for teaching speaking in the classroom. The first one is about the rehearsal nature of speaking activities, which allow learners to practice real-life speaking in the ‘safety of the classroom’. This is because classroom interaction is less demanding than real-life interaction since the former is less stressful and tolerates more or less the lack of experience especially that it is a learning environment.

Second, teaching speaking provides feedback both for FL teachers and learners with regard to learners' success and the language problems they are experiencing. Third, the speaking instruction allows students the opportunity to practice the foreign language and *activate* what they have stored in their brains. According to the same source, students' autonomy and proficiency in using FL fluently depend largely on the frequency of the speaking activities and tasks.

Moreover, Scott Thornbury related teaching speaking to establishing a sort of 'talking classrooms' in which FL speaking becomes a kind of culture (as cited in Harmer, 2007, p. 123). Harmer explains that if those *talking classrooms* become a regular feature of lessons, they will create a suitable environment for students to become more confident and proficient speakers. In all, there seems to be a convergence between linguists and FL teachers on the importance of interaction in the acquisition of speech skills (Rocío, 2012; Harmer, 2007; Nation and Newton, 2009; Brown, 2001). The meant interaction occurs in the FL classroom and can be achieved through collaborative learning and communicative language teaching.

Respectively, Rocío believes communicative language teaching to be built upon real-life situations requiring communication and thus offers the students adequate opportunities to communicate with their partners in the target language(2012, p. 24). To put it another way, talking classrooms will make up for real-world situations where interaction is required immediately. Another essential consideration when discussing speaking is fluency. There appears to be widespread agreement that speaking proficiency among FL students is correlated with the growth of fluency. (Nation & Newton, 2009; Harmer, 2007; Thornbury, 2013) (See Chapter 4, Section 4.4.4.1.2. and 4.4.4.2.1.).

2.3. Teaching Speaking the Hard Task

As mentioned in the previous sections, teaching speaking has long remained the weakest link in FL teaching matters. When compared to listening, for instance, Davies and Pearse (2009) believe that both "should partly be the natural result of using English"; however, speaking is supposed to "develop more slowly than listening" (p.82).The same authors argue that it is easier to make learners understand the teacher's speech by simplifying the language or using gestures and mimes, but it is not as easy to get them to express themselves in English. Similarly, when compared to reading or writing, speaking proves harder to treat and manipulate. In this respect, Bueno, Madrid and Mclaren (2006) wrote:

> Speaking is one of the most difficult skills language learners have to face. In spite of this, it has traditionally been forced into the background while we, teachers of English, have spent all our classroom time trying to teach our students how to write, to read and sometimes even to listen in a L2 because grammar has a long written tradition. (p.321)

However, to rote grammar is insufficient if effective EFL communication is intended. Also, parroting back information does not imply good listening or good speaking (Palmer, 2014, p. 6). According to Leong and Ahmadi (2017), speakers need to be proficient in many important areas, such as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension, to communicate easily and effectively. Moreover, teaching English as a foreign language to learners of another background and a different culture implements a serious consideration of those differences. The students belong to a totally different social, cultural and linguistic context where "the English language is not often present, and he or she does not need it to interact and survive in his or her life" *(*Rocío, 2012).This is not the case with learners of English as a second language who are constantly exposed to the second language and culture.

Thus, belonging to another culture and the lack of a clear need to communicate in English may encourage EFL learners to be unmotivated to speak it. EFL teachers may find it

hard to convince learners to adopt the English culture and cope with the difficulties of speaking since they ignore where and when to place it in their daily lives.

In addition to the cultural differences and ignorance of the practical aspect of speaking the foreign language, the oral discourse features make it one of the most challenging skills for EFL learners. As presented by Brown (2001), the meant features are: (1) Contractions, vowel reductions and elision; (2) the use of slang and idioms; (3) Stress, rhythm and intonation; (4) The need to interact with at least one other speaker. Harmer (2007) added speech speed to the former list as an essential feature which may play against the easy-going of teaching-learning speech. And since focusing solely on grammar instruction allows learners a minimal knowledge of the actual functioning of the foreign language, they need to be subject to more accurate teaching based on natural conversations and spontaneous communication.

As a result, teaching EFL speaking is much more challenging than one might imagine. It is a structured instruction that allows us to acquire the ability to communicate everything we want to say precisely as we first intended and to understand the interlocutor's message as they meant it. This is because it goes beyond simply teaching students to repeat a few isolated, simple word combinations.

This challenge affects both the teachers and their students. The variety and complexity of some English language characteristics, which EFL learners must master for any successful communication in English, are primarily to blame for this. For instance, Harmer (2007) noted speakers' ability to control features like stress, intonation, and pitch changes, and some other expressive options in the following quotation:

> Apart from the actual words they [speakers] use, they can vary their intonation and stress which helps them to show which part of what they are saying is most important. By varying the pitch and intonation in their voice they can clearly convey their attitude to what they are saying, too; they can indicate interest or lack of it, for example, and

> they can show whether they wish to be taken seriously. At any point in a speech event speakers can rephrase what they are saying; they can speed up or slow down. (p. 53)

Harmer explains that these reactions result from the speakers' responses to the feedback they get from the listeners including gestures, expressions and interruptions to show misunderstanding. In addition, the same author attracted attention to the non-linguistic cues native speakers generally use in face-to-face interaction, including facial expressions, gestures and general body language (Harmer, 2007, p. 53). These are very culturally specific, meaning they can be completely different from those to which learners are accustomed in their culture of origin. In addition, the teacher cannot rely solely on himself to show learners the meant native cues; s/he needs to introduce some illustrative picture or, even better, some video extracts to illustrate how natives use body language to express meaning.

Furthermore, FL speakers must master some crafts native speakers usually use to facilitate communication, save time, or simply use the language in a favourite cultural modal. This consists of some frequent practices such as the omission of parts of the sentence, the use of fillers and hesitation, the introduction of idiomatic expressions, and the ability to reformulate and rephrase sentences (Bueno, Madrid and Mclaren, 2006, p. 325).

All the characteristics above must be present for a speaking instruction to be effective. The various features of natural speech and how natives act in everyday situations must be familiar to learners. But all of this has to take place within the confines of an EFL classroom. This establishes the task's difficulty facing a speaking teacher, who must be meticulous and accurate in choosing the right resources and exercises to ensure that speaking instruction is successful. The following section mainly discusses how to incorporate activities into an oral instruction.

2.4. Thornbury's Stages of Teaching Speaking

Thornbury's contribution to foreign language speaking instruction is probably one of the most notable (2013). Influenced by sociocultural theory, which views learning as a social phenomenon requiring both activity and interactivity, he believes that learning in the classroom is "collaborative, co-constructed, and scaffolded." (2003, p. 39). He emphasised the importance of segmenting the speaking course into three stages: *awareness*, where the learner encounters new knowledge; *appropriation*, where this knowledge is integrated into the learner's existing system; and *automaticity*, by which some of this knowledge become available for use. In other words, the learner reaches fluency and autonomy. Each phase is distinct, but they all complement one another, as shown in the following sections.

2.4.1. The Awareness-Raising Stage

To activate the knowledge acquired by learners and make it operational, "some degree of conscious awareness is necessary" and "involves at least three processes: attention, noticing and understanding" Thornbury (2013, p.41). According to the same author, the first process requires students to be interested, involved and curious about learning new pieces of knowledge. Noticing is a more conscious process by which learners may discern and register the occurrence of some event or entity, whether unpredictably or predictably, if they have already been brought to their attention. This may also cover a shortcoming in their language proficiency that they notice as a result of their inability to express themselves FL; or simply when they notice the gap between their performance and that of an expert or a native, known as *noticing the gap* (Thornbury, 2013). According to the same author, the last process in this stage *understanding*, is "the recognition of a general rule or principle or pattern" (p. 42).

During the awareness-raising stage, the teacher or skilled peers must assist the learners in drawing their attention to a specific item or idea and assisting them in correcting or acquiring new knowledge. Also, pair-work and group-work are much solicited in this stage to foster collaboration which is supposed to give students more opportunities to notice and

bridge the gap between their level and that of better peers (Thornbury, 2013, p. 43). Adopting a task-based instructional cycle is also recommended for raising learners' awareness by: first, having them perform a specific task to the best of their ability; second, observing skilled practitioners performing the same task, then re-performing the original task while attempting to incorporate the targeted features. (Thornbury, 2013, p. 62).

2.4.2. Appropriation Stage

As its name indicates, appropriation means "taking over the ownership of something" or "making something one's own" (Thornbury, 2013, p. 63). To put it another way, appropriation of the skill of speaking or parts of it that were initially *other-regulated* in the awareness-raising stage become *self-regulated* in this stage. According to the same author, rather than controlled practise, practised control is a key feature of appropriation in which learners proceed towards mastering a skill with the probability of making mistakes but with the support of the teacher and skilled peers along this stage.

Moreover, drilling and chants are thought to be adequate for gaining control of the speaking skill because they allow learners to imitate and repeat specific new items (words or parts of speech) and acquire them as they move from the working memory to the long memory (Thornbury, 2013, p. 64).It is critical to emphasise here that drilling is not intended to become a monotonous repetition of the entire text or larger parts of speech. Other activities may include writing tasks (e.g., dictations), reading aloud, dialogues and others, as detailed by Thornbury (2013, pp. 64-88).

2.4.3. Automaticity Stage

According to Thornbury (2013), language production's automaticity is synonymous with autonomy in speaking or fluency. He defined autonomy as "the capacity to self-regulate performance as a consequence of gaining control over skills that were formerly other-

regulated" (p. 90). In practice, this distinguishes skilled performers and fosters the ability to automatize the more mechanical aspects of a task to free attention for higher-level activities (Thornbury, 2013, p. 89). Skilled performers are also able to speak faster (speed), use the minimum means to carry a task (economy), detect and reject errors rapidly (accuracy), think and plan ahead (anticipation), and perform better than unskilled performers even in unfavourable conditions (p. 90).

Moreover, Thornbury asserts that achieving autonomy implements gaining a certain degree of self-confidence, which will motivate taking further risks in that direction. This is why he fosters "classroom activities that involve minimal assistance, and where learners can take risks and boost their confidence" on the ground that they offer real operating conditions (real-world language use). Among the suggested activities are presentations and talks; stories, jokes and anecdotes; drama, role play and simulation; discussion and debates; conversation, chat; and outside-class speaking as tape-diaries and portfolios (Thornbury, 2013, pp. 94-111).

2.5. Speaking Activities' Criteria

Generally speaking, most modern FL and SL literature emphasizes the importance of seriously considering learners' learning styles' differences and preferences when designing activities in language classrooms. Jeremy Harmer stresses the importance of maintaining learners' motivation by allowing them to choose the most interesting activities to stay involved in the subject throughout the course (2007, pp. 20-21). Consequently, he defined good activity as the one that is most appealing to students; in other words, the one which enhances the participation of students and their teachers in the preparation of activities (2007). He distinguished between the activities based on repetition to foster a particular function or a piece of grammar (specific language constructions); and those which develop the skill of speaking "where there is a task to complete and speaking is the way to complete it" (p. 123).

Similarly, Rocío holds that speaking may be a supplementary activity for a grammar exercise or an excellent follow-up activity in the form of a discussion after reading or listening (2012, p. 39). Moreover, when designing an activity, teachers must also consider the necessity to create real-life situations and meaningful activities which simulate natives' daily communication (Rocío, 2012, p. 24), what Thornbury called later "real operating conditions" as mentioned in the previous section (2013, p. 90).

However, when considering teaching speaking as the primary goal, rather than just one of the four skills required in a language classroom, it is necessary to define the criteria which characterise the speaking activities and make them more beneficial for students to improve their performances. Thornbury proposed six conditions to maximize speaking opportunities and optimize the learners' speaking autonomy, including productivity, purposefulness, interactivity, challenge, safety and authenticity (2013, pp. 90-91).

Accordingly, productivity refers to the necessity of the activity to be maximally productive in the foreign language (not in L1) and offer equal opportunities for all the participants to provide the best conditions for autonomous language use. Purposefulness means that the speaking activity must have a clear outcome and participates in increasing the language productivity. An interactive activity is one which ensures a certain degree of exchange, even in talks and presentations where an audience must be present and demonstrate interest, understanding or asking questions and making comments.

Also, the activity must be challenging to enable the learners to draw on their available communicative knowledge to complete the task. The difficulty level must be chosen with care to ensure an acceptable level of challenge while avoiding discouraging learners or forcing them to seek refuge in their native language (L1). The term 'safety' refers to the learners' need for a secure and supportive classroom that is not judgmental of errors and where the teacher's assistance is available at all times. Authenticity deals with the activity relating to

real-life language use; otherwise, it fails to raise students' autonomy. This engenders ensuring spontaneity, minimal assistance, and minimal preparation of what to say.

2.6. Speaking Activities

Earlier, Martin Bygate (1987) presented four interaction activities suitable for practising oral skills. This includes information-gap activities; communication games (describe and draw, describe and arrange, find the difference and ask the right question); and simulations and project-based activities (pp.76-84). Generally speaking, discussions, prepared speeches, and role-playing exercises are the three activities that are typically associated with speaking instruction. We will discuss each in turn in the sections that follow.

2.6.1. Discussions

Discussions are probably considered the most commonly used activities in oral skills classes. Generally, the idea is to supply students with a given topic through reading, listening or a videotape and then ask them to work in pairs or groups to discuss the selected topic and reach a solution (Rocío, 2012, p. 23).Practical examples of discussions may be found in 'Let's Start Talking', an attractive textbook with exciting topics and colour illustrations written by George Rooks (1994) and designed for foreign speakers of English.

However, we need to differentiate between two types of discussion activities: planned and spontaneous. Sometimes discussion arises as a result of learners' sudden need to report something they feel is interesting within the classroom. Thornbury calls this *spontaneous discussion* and believes it is the best type (Thornbury, 2013, p. 102). Conversely, when the teacher prepares the topic beforehand and gives it a more structured form, it is called instead *planned discussion* (Harmer, 2007, p. 128). The same author assumed both are beneficial for learners in 'provoking fluent language use'. Yet, since spontaneous discussions happen rarely and teachers cannot provoke them or predict when and how they may occur, they prefer to

introduce planned discussions in their classrooms. This author explains that results within those latter are generally less successful than with spontaneous discussions (2007, p. 128).

Furthermore, students will be more engaged in the discussions if they initially participate in selecting the topic (Rocío, 2012). They also need enough time to explore the discussion. For instance, they must think about the subject and articulate their opinions in the foreign language (Harmer, 2007). Accordingly, teachers may provide their students with some cards bearing brief statements of arguments about the topic and supply them with the necessary words and expressions when they get stuck to push the discussion along and avoid embarrassing situations (Harmer, 2007).

2.6.2. Prepared Speech

This consists mainly of inciting students to speak the foreign language they are learning. Rocío (2012) suggests that teachers may, for instance, ask their students to recount an unforgettable event they experienced. The author valued such topics because if they are initially interesting and personally meaningful for each learner, they are likely to encourage narration and description. Respectively, Thornbury (2013, p. 94) classified this type of activity under the name of "presentations and talks" and assumed them to be excellent preparation for real-life speaking.

However, speeches are generally not quite appreciated by FL learners; they generate a kind of fear on the speaker's side and a feeling of boredom, after a while, for those who listen. For this reason, Rocío believes in the efficiency of attributing to listeners specific responsibilities during speeches by assigning beforehand one or two students the responsibility of evaluating a given speech, using guidelines created by the teacher or by the learners themselves(2012, p. 24). Once the speech finishes, the evaluators may be asked to summarize its content, relate it to their personal experiences or just note its strengths and

weaknesses. Put another way, learners need to be fully involved in the activity to avoid boredom and give the whole class a chance to participate.

Harmer (2007) presented an interesting example of speaking sequences that engage the whole class. He called it "photographic competition" and designed it for upper intermediate or advanced EFL learners (pp. 124-125). After being divided into small groups, learners are supposed to play the role of judges in a photographic competition. Before they see the four finalist photos, each group has to start first to make a list of the criteria according to which they will judge the best photography. Discussions among the members of each group must be in English, with the possibility of seeking the teacher's help when necessary. After being shown the photos, they will select one of them according to the criteria they formerly decided. Then, each group must report its judgment and justify its choice. Further, this activity may take the form, for instance, of a more extended whole-class discussion about the historical development of photography over time or another related topic to the present one.

The gist of these types of activities lies in the opportunity to activate learners' knowledge to talk about something that interests them. Also, as part of the contribution to the activity (e.g., selection of criteria and choice of a photo), learners may feel more enthusiastic and engaged without realizing their learning and thus escape boredom situations and the stress-rising nature generally allocated to FL speaking.

2.6.3. Role-Play/ Simulation:

Role-plays and simulations are not the same. The former entails the learners' adoption of another *persona*, as when they pretend to be job applicants or celebrities (Thornbury, 2013, p. 98). The latter represents the type of activities in which learners act as if they were in real-life situations. Learners are free to simulate their roles without being muchly oriented or told what to say about the roles they are simulating. Examples of these may be a check-in encounter at an airport, a job interview, or a conference presentation (Harmer, 2007, p. 125).

Role-plays, however, are more structured. They include scripts created from some prompts and expressions or using the gained knowledge from instruction or discussion of the speech act and its variations before the role is played (Rocío 2012, p. 24). For instance, the teacher divides the class into groups according to the number of roles needed for the activity. Each group is supplied with a role-card bearing enough information on a given character, including identity, job preferences, and temperament, in addition to information related to the given situation. Each group is likely to discuss its role according to the role-card's information, i.e., ask questions, answer questions, comment on something, etc. While they are doing this, the teacher plays the supervisor role as s/he goes around the class clearing up any doubts the students might have and supplying them with the language they think they need (Harmer, 2007, p. 126).When the roles are played and the activity achieved, the teacher tells the class about what he witnessed during the activity and corrects any persistent mistakes students made during the role-plays.

Simulation and role play are considered the most appropriate activities for practising the socio-cultural aspect of language (Rocío 2012). However, deciding which is best for student achievement is always confusing. Reality simulation allows students to monitor their ability to cope with a similar linguistic situation in real life. While role play allows them to hide behind the character they play, which is very beneficial if learners are shy or hate to voice their own opinions or feelings (Harmer 2007, pp. 126-127). It would be better for teachers to try both simulation and role play and decide which one is best based on the needs and preferences of the class.

2.6.4. Other Useful Activities

In addition to the three typical activities mentioned above, many other types deserve to be used in FL teaching. Harmer suggested nine additional activities in his book "How to Teach English" (2007, pp. 129-131). Similarly, Rocío (2012, pp. 49-60) presented a more

extensive list of activities designed for FL oral communication class divided into four major divisions: drills, information gaps, discussions and games (see Appendix 34).

Based on his threefold stage discussed earlier, Thornbury (2013) allotted a set of activities to meet the objectives of each stage (awareness-raising, appropriation, automaticity). For instance, to awareness-raising, he suggested using live listening and noticing-the-gap activities; to appropriation, he proposed drilling and chants, writing tasks, reading aloud dialogues and communicative tasks; and to autonomy, he suggested presentation and talks, stories, jokes, anecdotes, role-plays and simulation, discussion and debates, conversation and chat and outside-class speaking.

These are a few examples of a wide range of speaking activities that may be introduced in FL classrooms in general, oral expression courses in particular. The space is wide open for creativity, and teachers can use their imagination and experience to develop activities suitable to the needs and preferences of their students. Carefully designed activities can create a comfortable learning environment where the language is practised spontaneously or in a more structured way. The activities that favour classmates-interaction need to be fostered in speaking classrooms, and the teacher-student relationship necessitates serious consideration. Correcting speaking is one of the thorny issues that influences this relation.

2.7. Correcting Speaking

Making mistakes or errors is common during FL learning. It is nearly impossible to learn without making mistakes, and it is usually through these mistakes that students learn. Davies and Pearse (2009, p. 103) argued that “errors are an integral part of language learning” and “are not just evidence for failure to learn” since even “advanced learners who are quite fluent usually have several fossilized errors in their English”. However, the way teachers deal with students’ inaccuracies makes the difference. While some prefer immediate correction, others prefer to postpone corrections until the end of the activity so as not to disturb timid

learners, and to avoid disrupting the flow of speech. Nation and Newton (2009, p. 22) believe making mistakes "without penalties" contributes to a positive beginner' classroom.

It is important to note that correction varies depending on the type of activity at hand. According to Harmer (2007, p. 131), correcting mistakes made during speaking activities must be distinct from those made during study exercises, such as correcting mistakes in a pronunciation exercise. The same author explains that when students are engaged in a conversation, teachers' interventions or constant interventions are supposed to disrupt the flow of the conversation and even undermine the purpose of speaking. Respectively, Thornbury (2013) believes that "interrupting learners in 'full flight' to give them corrections seems to run counter to the need to let them experience autonomy" (p. 91). This is why teachers must be subtle in choosing the right time to correct their learners' errors. In this respect, Lindsay and Knight (2006) assumed the difficulty of deciding whether to correct students' mistakes immediately or at the end of the activity or class. They believed that while immediate correction allows the learner to correct the error and continue with the activity, it has the disadvantage of disrupting the flow of communication and potentially discouraging or embarrassing the learner (2012, p. 68).

To avoid this dilemma, Thornbury suggested postponing correction until the end of the activity as an alternative to on-the-spot correction (2013, p. 93). Correspondingly, Harmer (2007) suggests that teachers keep a close eye on, listen to, and take notes on students' mistakes or failures to make themselves understood during the speaking activity. When this ends, teachers draw learners' attention to their mistakes and encourage them to reflect on their learning without embarrassing them or singling them out for special criticism after a speaking activity is completed. This includes expressing satisfaction with the manner in which a specific student says something before pointing out one or two errors and discuss them with the class or attribute them individually to the students in question(2007, p. 131). Thornbury

uses the term *repair* instead of *correction* because it is less restrictive than the latter (2013, p. 92). He also argues that minimal but effective intervention can be beneficial in case of errors which he defines as a gap in the speaker's knowledge of the system. However, this may prevent the learners from opportunities to practice self-repair, especially in case of mistakes which he presents as the learners' failure to apply what they already know due to the demands of immediate communication.

However, the learners' reactions to the teacher's intervention, whether repair or correction, may range from open acceptance to complete resistance. Although some think immediate corrections are not a problem, others admit to having severe issues with interventions from teachers and/or peers (Harmer, 2007; Thornbury, 2013). Though, Harmer believes that when the teacher has good relations with his students, it is possible to carry out a kind of "soft correction" in the form of "reformulations" (2007, p. 132). He claims that this can occur when the teacher, having already detected a mistake, repeats what the student said, but correctly this time, without asking the speaker to reproduce his expression. Despite these dispositions, students may remain averse if they are highly hesitant or if they fear losing face in front of others, particularly in the presence of dominating students who appear to be more comfortable when speaking and thus intimidate those who are not (Harmer, 2007, p. 132).

To avoid learners' resistance and alleviate their tolerance towards correction, Thornbury (2013, p.93) suggests that teachers equip their learners with the language with which they initiate repair, such as "sorry, could you say that again? I didn't get that" and "What do you mean?" Harmer (2007) suggests five practical solutions to cope with resistant learners (pp. 182-183). These include, before all, the use of pair or group work to motivate quiet learners to speak with the least possible anxiety. In this respect, Davies and Pearse (2009) promoted managing pair and group work through careful preparation and organization, as well as the progressive training of learners to participate fully and effectively to take

advantage of their use. According to the same authors, these advantages include creating variety and dynamism, an enormous increase in individual practice, low stress-private practice, opportunities to develop learner autonomy and better interaction with peers (2009, p. 125).Back to Harmers' second solution, he suggested that teachers may ask shy students to write first what they plan to say to allow them some silent preparation. Third, teachers may introduce *acting out* tasks in which they try to be the 'drama coach' to train their learners to act their roles (using adequate pitch, intonation, and emotions) and not just read them aloud. Fourth, using role-cards helps learners hide behind the allocated character's identity and speak more freely. Last, the teacher may ask learners to record themselves outside the lesson to allow them a chance to adjust their speaking in a less stressful mood before giving the record to the teacher for feedback.

Overall, teachers must exercise caution when developing communicative and interactive activities. While designing the oral expression course, they must be mindful of their students' differences, preferences, and learning styles to ensure the smooth operation of the teaching-learning process and better results of the outlined objectives.

2.8. Speaking Assessment

As shown in the previous sections, teaching EFL speaking is far from easy. Correcting speech requires enough knowledge and a skilled teacher. Assessing speaking is not an easy task either. But, before diving into the speaking assessment issue, it is necessary to define assessment in teaching.

In one of the most impressive handbooks on assessment, Michal Harris and Paul McCann (1994) defined it as "one of the most valuable sources of information about what is happening in a learning environment" (p. 2). They first gave a clear distinction between assessment and evaluation. While the first includes measuring students' performance and the progress they make as well as diagnosing problems they encounter, the second instead deals

with all the factors that influence the learning process, including syllabus objectives, course design, materials, methodology, teacher performance and the assessment itself.

Harris and McCann made another distinction, this time between formal, informal and self-assessment (1994, pp. 2-4). Formal evaluations or tests are the best known and most used of the three types and are based on well-established conditions (e.g., predesigned questions, exam papers for answers, and time allocated to each test). According to the same authors, formal assessments should be organized frequently throughout the course rather than towards the end of the term to reach the best results. Informal assessment, however, is a kind of continuous assessment that goes hand-in-hand with learning almost every lesson, if possible. It offers teachers and learners ongoing reflection on their achievements. According to Harmer (2007), continuous assessment helps teachers keep an eye on how well their learners are doing. Language 'portfolio' is a part of the CEF (Common European Framework) and probably the most common form of continuous assessment (2007, p.166).

Unlike the other two, the third type, self-assessment, is the learners' business only. Learners usually make regular intervals to reflect on their progress and problems. Therefore, to obtain accurate feedback on learners' and teachers' success or failure, teachers must introduce the three types of assessment in their teaching. This includes an informal evaluation during each session; a formal evaluation at the end of chapters or any other crucial subdivisions of the course; and self-assessment by involving learners in the teaching-learning process as effective counterparts when possible.

In terms of speech teaching, evaluating a learner's oral performance presents the same level of difficulty as teaching, if not greater. This is mainly due to the variety of speech elements to assess and their complex nature (Harris & McCann, 1994). According to the same source, assessing speaking needs a clear delimitation of the criteria that determine good speakers from bad ones. Also, learners must be referred to a certain level before being judged

as good or bad speakers. As a result, comparing a beginner to an intermediate learner and claiming that the latter is superior will be unfair and pointless. This is obvious because they do not belong to the same level (Harris & McCann, 1994, p. 4).

In the same respect, Ur (1996) questioned the possibility and effectiveness of assessing speaking. He summarized the main arguments in favour of testing speaking (formal assessment) in two points. First, the fact that speaking is a distinguished skill from others; it deserves special attention and needs to be treated and checked separately. Second, students who speak well are discriminated against if the test is based on written language (Ur 1996: 134). Disadvantages, however, lay in the time and money-consuming nature of speaking tests, in addition to the difficulty in establishing testing criteria for speaking, if there are any, and the incompatibility in the way teachers apply those criteria; with strictness or leniency (Ur, 1996, p. 134).

Moreover, Harris and McCann (1994) showed that formal assessment remains challenging to organize in certain teaching contexts. That is why, in oral expression instruction, informal testing is generally preferred to formal testing, which relies on monitoring and observation of students' progress as its substrates. The same authors suggest using band scales to record the data they collect from observing and monitoring their students to create a kind of standard that will provide an oral assessment agreement. We summarized Harris and McCann's band scales in table 1.

As previously stated, self-assessment is the third type of Harris and McCann's threefold categorization based on students' self-assessment of their learning progress (1994, pp.11-12). However, learners cannot auto-evaluate themselves without referring their evaluation to well-established criteria. Fortunately, the Introductory Guide to the Common European Framework of Reference for English Language Teachers CEFR, published by the Council of Europe in November 2001, brought a resolution to this issue.

Table1

Harris and McCann's Band Scale for Informal Assessment

	The Speaking Skill (Fluency)	**Errors Rate**
1	Unable to use the language	Incomprehensible
2	Difficulty with speaking	Almost incomprehensible
3	Some difficulty in speaking	Many errors
4	Speaks quite fluently	Some errors
5	Speaks fluently	Almost no errors

Note. The author designed this table to summarize the band scale for informal assessment suggested by Harris and McCann (1994, p. 10). It is supposed to provide a guide to students' fluency and errors rate. Students' speaking skill ranges from the less skilled (incomprehensible) to the most skilled (more fluent).

It provides a detailed description of learners' skill levels and allows teachers to track their learner's progress through the different levels (Introductory Guide to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), 2013, p. 5). The CEFR is divided into three broad bands: A, B, and C, which correspond to basic (beginners), independent (intermediate), and proficient (advanced) learners, respectively; and each band is divided into two levels which results in six Common Reference Levels(A1,A2,B1,B2,C1,C2). The most important quality of CEFR is that it applies the same set of levels to all the various sub-skills and areas of competence and allows teachers to link up those levels to the different areas of study (2013, p. 6). An example of what FL learners are supposed to be able to do, in terms of speaking, at the C1 and C2 levels is shown in Table 2 below (the whole table is available in the Appendices section):

Table 2

C1 and C2 speaking performance of CEFR

Proficient	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express themselves spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express themselves fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

Note. Introductory Guide to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) Adapted from English Profile. Cambridge University Press 2013.

The meant sub-skills and competencies covered by the CEFR include: (1) all the basic four skills(speaking, reading, writing and listening);(2) the communicative language, as turn-taking or asking for clarification;(3) types of interaction including obtaining goods and services and interviewing;(4) and more linguistic skills as vocabulary range and phonological control(2013, pp. 6-7).

In the same respect, Rocío (2012, p. 27) suggested a set of measures to assert the usefulness of students' self-assessment of their speaking performances to cope with the difficulty of that area. These measures include: first, establishing a set of criteria so that everyone knows what they are going to reflect on; second, asking students to reflect on their

achievements and perceived shortcomings rather than asking them to give themselves grades; and, finally, planning self-assessment immediately after the task is completed.

2.9. Speaking Tests

The distinction between assessment and testing can be perplexing, as the two terms appearing interchangeable. They are, however, entirely distinct. According to Davies and Pearse (2009, p. 170), a test is "normally designed for a specific purpose", while assessment or continuous assessment is a kind of general evaluation of "class participation, progress tests, homework and projects rather than final test alone". Put differently, assessment is a general type of evaluation. It can also be interpreted as tests are a type of assessment.

As previously mentioned, Harris and McCann (1994) defined assessment as a broader type of evaluation that extends throughout the learning process. In contrast, tests (or formal evaluation) are viewed as the most commonly used type based on a set of pre-established conditions, including predesigned questions, exam papers for answers, and time allocated to each test (Harris & McCann, 1994, p. 3). Similarly, the importance of tests and their common use in language classrooms were underlined by Davies and Pearse (2009) as "the main instruments for evaluation of learning in most teaching situations" since "they are part of the reality of the classroom everywhere" (p. 171).

2.9.1. Types of Speaking Tests

On a broader scale, Harmer (2007) presented a list of tests based on two distinctions: the reason for testing and what is to be tested. The first distinction includes four types, as demonstrated by Harmer (2007, pp. 166-167): Placement, progress, achievement, and proficiency tests. The placement test happens at the beginning of a learning stage to select new learners according to their capacities and orient them to a class at an appropriate level. The second, Progress tests, refer to the type of tests with which teachers can follow their

students' progress and how well they have been taught over a limited period (a week, two weeks, a month).

Achievement tests, also called *exit* tests, occur at the end of a term, semester or year. It is designed to measure how well learners have achieved everything to determine which class they will join next year or whether or not they deserve a school-leaving certificate. The last type, dubbed proficiency tests, is a more general type which takes place outside the classroom context. It is a type of public examination that aims to show the level a person has reached at a given time and is used by employers and universities as a criterion for admission and selection (ESOL of Cambridge University and the American TOEFL).

According to Harmer's (2007) second distinction, mainly based on what is tested, there are two other tests' divisions: discrete Vs integrative items and direct Vs indirect test items (pp. 161-172). Discrete-item testing is rather used to test only one thing at a time as when we test learners' assimilation of the present simple tense. Conversely, integrative-item testing requires learners to use a variety of language and skills to complete one task. Concerning the second division, indirect test items are supposed to test students' knowledge of language rather than getting them to use it (Harmer, p. 168). Direct test is the one which asks students to do something with language as to write a letter or take part in conversation. Generally speaking, direct tests are almost always integrative.

However, Davies and Pearse (2009, pp. 171-172) demonstrated five major test distinctions when it comes to testing speaking ability: Placement, diagnostic, progress, course and proficiency tests. The first is similar to what Harmer (2007) presented earlier. It is appropriate for large institutions that frequently receive new students and need to place them in the appropriate course or level. Diagnostic tests fit mixed-level groups and are used to "find out learners' strengths and weaknesses at the start of a course" to help the teachers adjust their teaching to the needs and preferences of the group and the individual learners (Davies &

Pearse, 2009, p. 171). According to the same source, Progress tests (also known as short-term achievement tests) typically focus on the most recently introduced and practised language to assess how well learners are doing after each lesson or unit and provide consolidation or remedial work as needed.

The fourth type, dubbed course tests or longer-term achievement tests, are very significant for both teachers and learners since they are "the commonest basis for the marks teachers give learners at the end of each course" and are "the main concern in testing for most classroom teachers" (Davies & Pearse, 2009, p. 172). The final type, known as proficiency tests, is used to assess learners' levels in relation to commonly accepted standards. They are useful for objectively assessing learning as well as indirectly assessing course design and teaching in general. The UCLES (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate) exams and the TOFEL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) test are seen the best examples of proficiency tests (Davies & Pearse, 2009, p. 172).

2.9.2. Criteria for Good Tests

Testing is an arduous task. It is probably more complicated than teaching itself. As asserted in the preceding section, without testing, teachers cannot know how well they have performed and how much their students have learned during a specified period of instruction. As a result, tests require two conditions to achieve the previously mentioned objectives while also being considered reliable and worthy. First, they need to be well determined according to precise criteria to be valid for measuring learners' and teachers' performances quite reasonably. Second, they must be appropriately marked to avoid subjectivity and ensure fairness and value (Harmer, 2007, pp.167-174).

2.9.2.1. Criteria for Designing a Good Test

In general, it is believed that the primary test for real success in English teaching and learning should be whether or not the learners can communicate at all in English (Davies& Pearse, 2000, p. 1). In other words, to design a proper test one should bear in mind that the main objective from testing learners in ELT (English Language Teaching) is to evaluate their capacity to communicate in English. Thornbury believes balancing accuracy and fluency according to the course's objectives to be crucial in designing a good test (2013, p. 115). Harmer (2007) believed that for a test to be trustworthy for both examiners and examinees, its designation must adhere to a set of specific standards that differentiate good tests from bad ones. These standards include validity, reliability, practicality, washback/ backwash effect, fairness and motivation (2007, pp. 167-168).

Validity refers to the test's ability to do what it was designed for and must have a *face validity* aspect which refers to the extent to which learners (and teachers) may feel comfortable and confident when they see the test (Harmer, 2007, Nation & Newton, 2009). Davies and Pearse (2009, p. 172) distinguished between content and construct validity. While the first is concerned with harmonizing the test content (grammar, vocabulary, and functional content) with the course syllabus, the second is concerned with aligning the test exercises or tasks with the course's general objectives and matching them to those already used in the course. This distinction fits Harmers' fifth criterion, 'fairness', which implements that teachers have to design the test's questions according to what they are sure their learners at least have seen once (2007, p. 168).

The second criterion, reliability, refers to the ease of marking a test in addition to its trustworthiness, making anyone who marks it reach more or less the same result (Harmer, 2007, p. 167). Similarly, Davies and Pearse defined reliability as the degree to which test results can be trusted (2009, p. 173). This includes how far it can be objectively marked and how it is administered to the various tested individuals or groups. Examples of this latter

include the time allotted to the test; whether there is exceptional support for a student or a given group; if invigilation is conducted exactly with the same strictness or not; etc.). Nation and Newton (2009) suggested the test/retest technique to check the validity of a given test. According to them, if the same test is given to the same people twice, with an interval of a week or so, and the results are the same, it is worthy to say that the test is reliable (p. 166).

Practicality, the third criterion, refers to how long the test takes to be answered by the examinees and how long it takes to be marked by the examiners. A lengthy test is definitely not practical for both sides (Harmer, 2007, p. 167). Nation and Newton summarized the conditions for a test to be practical in the following points: economy of time, money, and hours; ease of administration and scoring; and ease of interpretation (2009, pp. 168-169).

The washback effect occurs when teachers, who are already aware of the types of questions that will be asked in a given test, teach their students exactly what they need to know to pass the exam rather than teaching them what they need to know in general (Harmer, 2007; Nation & Newton, 2009).This is a fairly common practice in foreign language classrooms, justified by teachers' and, without a doubt, their students' desire for success. However, if the test fails to reflect teachers' teaching, the instruction appears to be reduced to the desire to fit the test, which is said to have a negative effect on teaching.

The last standard deals with motivation. Harmer believes that tests can be a double-edged weapon. On the one hand, it may be a motivation booster because learners obviously work harder than usual when a test is approaching. Furthermore, nothing is more motivating than passing an exam.

On the other hand, if the test is too complex or ambiguous, it will be frustrating for the students and will undoubtedly reduce their motivation. As a result, harmer believes that a certain level of difficulty (or ease) is recommended so that all learners begin with the same opportunity (2007, p. 168).

2.9.2.2. Criteria for Marking a Good Test

Marking tests can be relatively simple if the markers only have to check boxes or individual words, though even here, human error can often creep in. However, things become much more complicated when the goal is to evaluate a more integrative piece of work (Harmer, 2007, p. 172). The first case generally fits the direct test items where learners are asked to fulfil a more or less simple task to test their knowledge of how the language itself works. Each item is given a mark, and answers are then evaluated according to a marking scheme (or a scale) as with multiple choice, fill-in the gaps and transformation questions (indirect test items).

Nevertheless, this is not the case with direct tests. Integrative (indirect) tests are more complex to evaluate than discrete tests (Harmer, 2007, p. 172). Teachers give an overall mark, for instance, to score learners' essays or a role-play task. The evaluation relies mainly on teachers' experience; their knowledge of the learners; and their *gut-instinct* reaction to what they read (e.g., essay) or what they hear (e.g., an oral performance). Unfortunately, this type of scoring is unfair and subjective in most cases. This is because it is built on very personal factors, which, in most cases, teachers are unaware of.

Harmer (2007, p. 174) suggested two solutions to avoid teachers' subjectivity in such cases. The first advocates the involvement of other people (correctors). When more than one teacher converge exactly (or approximately) in scoring the same piece of writing (or oral performance), this proves the reliability and worthiness of the marking. The second promotes marking scales according to a set of selected items. Harmer believes this marking scale to be practical in helping teachers evaluate their learners' speaking based on detailed criteria rather than relying on an overall 'impressionistic' mark. Also, it gives learners more chances to score better since the mark includes different aspects of their oral performance and allows them to compensate for some of their weaknesses with what they already master the most.

Overall, as previously stated, designing a test is not an easy task. However, relying on those criteria when creating questions helps teachers avoid a slew of issues commonly claimed by students and related to unfairness and subjectivity.

Conclusion

From everything said above, it is clear that teaching speaking in a foreign language classroom is necessary and even inevitable. Its significance stems from the fact that, along with writing, it characterises the productive aspect of the language, without which oral communication cannot be possible. And, given that oral interaction is thought to be the primary function of a language, it is not surprising that it has received so much attention in recent literature. It is also clear that regardless of why they chose to study English in the first place, learners prioritise mastering speaking and are satisfied when this goal is met, regardless of other skills.

Dealing with speaking, on the other hand, is a difficult task for both students and teachers. On the one hand, this is due to the complexity of speaking and the amount of knowledge and competencies required of learners. On the other, teachers must be prudent in how they approach teaching speaking; it is all about decisions. They must be subtle in selecting activities appropriate for the course objectives and the students' levels and tendencies. They must create real operating conditions in the classroom and be constantly ready to adjust the difficulty level of the various tasks to ensure a positive and challenging environment that is not counterproductive. It is critical to consider how to approach correcting or repairing students' mistakes (or errors) without jeopardising the safe and supportive learning environment. To complete the circle, teachers must be subtle in designing and marking tests based on the course objectives, what they want to test (accuracy or fluency), and scientific criteria, most notably validity and reliability.

CHAPTER THREE

INTEGRATING LISTENING WITH SPEAKING AND USING AUTHENTIC VIDEOS IN EFL CLASSROOMS

Introduction

As thoroughly explained in the preceding chapters, the EFL/ESL exploration field has recently experienced a revolutionary shift toward serious consideration of listening and speaking due to the growing evidence of communicative competence. Researchers competed to reshape EFL education to highlight the best strategies for teaching listening and speaking, which had long been overlooked compared to the vast amount of literature exhausted in EFL reading and writing. Things have changed, especially in the internet era. Boonkit (2010) believes that, since it is widely used as a means of communication, particularly on the internet, the English-speaking skill should be developed alongside other skills to improve communication achievement both with native English speakers and with other members of the international community.

Consequently, based on purely communicative and technological requirements in addition to the English language's current universality, those who are unable to efficiently interpret (listen effectively) and successfully produce English (speak intelligibly) are considered "quasi-illiterate". (Aouar & Aboubou, 2018, p. 580). The intertwined relationship between listening and speaking in the language classroom has been proven, and most scholars have asserted the efficacy of such a combination. Furthermore, including English videos in such classrooms has been argued to be quite beneficial in developing students' listening and speaking skills.

The present Chapter is devoted to the literature concerning: first, the integration of listening and speaking in EFL classrooms; second, the significance of using English video extracts in promoting students' listening and speaking skills.

3.1. The Significance of Integrating Listening with Speaking in Language Classrooms

Nobody can deny that, except for pathological dysfunction, we all integrate listening and speaking in everyday conversation, consciously or unconsciously. This fact drew the attention of academics to the significance of combining the two skills in the language classroom. Davies and Pearse (2009) stated that "speaking obviously usually involves listening" (p. 99). Listening and speaking have been identified as inseparable components of language instruction that can assist students in preparing for using real-life English (Bahns, 1995; Lynch, 2012).

And as long as oral interaction is concerned, Harmer (2007)emphasised the importance of frequency of exposure to the English language in the development of students' perception (listening) and production (speaking) of the target language (p. 133).For effective communication ends, it is believed imperative to "accustom the learners to combining listening and speaking in real time, in natural interaction" (Davies & Pearse, 2009, p. 82).More recently, Mart (2020) argued that "learners must simultaneously attend to listening and speaking in a conversation; therefore, this raises their proficiency, as the teaching of these two skills cannot be conducted in isolation" (p. 1). He believes that since communicating simultaneously entails receiving, comprehending, and speaking, this latter does not occur if the speaker is unable to decode the message delivered by their interlocutor. By extension, Mart argued that the development of oral production requires the integration of listening and speaking skills (2020, pp. 1-2).

However, listening is considered first when this intertwined relationship is evoked in FL communication. Following the logic, this seems adequate since the language is first received, analysed then reproduced. In this respect, Erick Palmer (2014) believes that listening is the predominant language art; this is why he prefers to always place listening

before speaking when addressing English language arts questions. At their early age, he argued, infants learn through listening first before acquiring the ability to speak and, later, read and write (p. 9).Similarly, Tsang(2022,para. Introduction) argued that receiving input—whether spoken (listening) or written (reading)—can be viewed as the first critical step in learning a language because it is required for language development and output (speaking and writing). In practice, assigning students to do a speaking activity after listening effectively encourages them to apply their target language knowledge in real-world situations (Mart, 2020, p. 2). In the same way, Bueno, Madrid and McLaren (2006) confirmed the significance of teaching listening for the development of the speaking skill since "it establishes the good basis for successful communicative exchanges" (p. 344).

White (1998) believed being a good listener involves collaboration with speakers and active action in asking for clarification in situations of misunderstanding (p. 13). The interchangeable nature of the listener-speaker roles is worth noting here; in communication, a listener becomes a speaker when answering a question or asking for clarification. This interchangeability emphasizes the listening and speaking interdependence and implies the necessity of their simultaneous use in the foreign language classroom (Aouar & Aboubou, 2018, pp. 581-582).

3.1.1. Activities for Integrating Listening with Speaking in the Language Classrooms

Regarding the complex aspect of listening and speaking, which have mainly been demonstrated in the previous chapters, the practice of the activities which promote interaction between students is believed essential to the conscious development of the learners' listening and speaking competencies (Rocío, 2012, p. 64). However, Mart (2020) thought that, in general, focusing on listening activities is primordial for developing communicative competence. He conducted a study to determine whether listening and speaking integrated

language activities assist learners in achieving proficiency in English spoken language. He concluded:

Exposure to language input by virtue of listening is an essential ingredient not only for conversation skills but also language development. Needless to say, the findings of the study highlight the significance of integrating listening and speaking with a focus on listening activities enables learners to become cognizant of linguistic features and offer them an avenue to practice language. (Mart, 2020, p. 6)

In what follows, we aim to present some activities that have proven beneficial in the type of English language instruction which favours teaching listening and speaking skills in tandem.

3.1.1.1. Role-Play and Simulation Activities

Role-play and simulation activities are believed adequate for teaching-learning listening and speaking skills in the language classroom. They are also advised to simulate real-life scenarios that cannot be generated through classroom interactions and to use formal language that would not normally be used in the classroom context (Thornbury, 2013, p. 96). He believes that learners who are uncomfortable *being themselves* are more likely to hide behind their roles and then perform better.

3.1.1.2. Discussion and Debates

Organizing an informal debate or a formal discussion is beneficial to accustom learners to listening and speaking in natural interaction (Davies & Pearse, 2009, p. 86). Thornbury (2013) encouraged spontaneous classroom discussions and debates and proposed a series of activities such as warm-up discussions, balloon debates, and panel discussions (which adopt the format of a television debate) (pp. 102-104).

3.1.1.3. Information-Gap Activities

In a study conducted on teaching listening and speaking in integration through information-gap tasks, Tavil (2010) concluded that teaching these skills when used separately will "influence negatively the communication in the classroom; therefore, the teachers should create real life situations not only by integrating listening and speaking skills but also by implementing information-gap tasks to enhance real communication among the individuals" (p. 769). She argued that these integrated skill activities carry up students' involvement and motivation mainly because they relate to real life and thus lead to communication.

3.1.1.4. Group-Work Projects

Davies and Pearse (2009) believed group-works on projects to be the best for integrating language skills and developing the learners' communicative competencies. They provided a list of how a project might be developed, including discussions and planning (speaking/ listening/ writing), evaluation and modification (reading/ speaking/ listening/ writing), production (writing/ speaking/ listening) in addition to display and presentation (reading/ speaking/ listening).

3.1.1.5. Information Transfer Activities

Nation and Newton (2009) believe information transfer activities are suitable for the type of instruction that aims at integrating listening with speaking. They envelop the kind of activities which involve the use of a small amount of written language to reproduce the heard (or read) message in a new form through speaking or writing. Examples are picture ordering (by adding numbers to each picture), completing a map, drawing a picture or completing a table. These activities, according to the same authors, involve changing the message *form* while keeping the message itself the same. The focus is instead on the details of the information presented in the activity (2009, p. 47).

3.1.1.6. Think-Pair-Share Activities (TPS)

Drawing on the earlier work of Lyman (1981), Raba (2017) pleaded in favour of the think-pair-share (TPS) technique to create an enjoyable learning environment, promote interaction and cooperation among students and enhance their motivation to learn better and improve their communicative competencies. These activities must be realised on three work levels: individual, pair, and group work. Under this technique, the activities need the learners to first think about a particular question and formulate answers; second, work in pairs and discuss their answers; and last, then share their ideas with the whole group (Raba, 2007, para. Theoretical).

3.1.1.7. Conversation and Free Talk

Conversation, according to Tony Lynch (2009), is the spoken genre that most effectively combines listening and speaking without either reading or writing. (pp. 111-112). However, since all interaction in a classroom is planned with a pedagogical purpose, discussion cannot take place because it is, by definition, spontaneous. Consequently, Lynch generated an activity which he called *Free Talk* to simulate real conversations. The learners write questions to which they are genuinely interested in hearing an answer or a solution, then work in small groups and in parallel to discuss the questions and suggest answers. The instructor switches between groups to keep an eye on what they are saying and to offer assistance if necessary.

3.1.1.8. Live Listening Activities

The live listening activities imply face-to-face talks with teachers or visitors who master well the studied foreign language (Rocío, 2012). This allows students to practice listening to special accents, intonations and paralinguistic features, and speaking as when conversing with or interviewing the guest (p. 63). Furthermore, Rocío drew attention to the

importance of creating real-life situations within the classroom to allow learnersto practise their listening and speaking skills. Based on the work of Bueno and McLaren (2005), he stated a long list of activities that promote combining listening and speaking, including video clips, language laboratories, computers and CD-ROMs, in addition to language games (2012, pp. 60-63).

3.1.1.9. Outside-the-Classroom Activities

Outside-the-classroom activities (Rocío, 2012), or the outside-class-speaking (Thornbury, 2013),aim to enlarge the scope of learners' opportunities to experience real English beyond the boundaries of the language classroom through participation in events or inviting English native speakers. Also, theuse of technology in or outside the classroom, as chatting on the net, is believed very beneficial to their motivation (Rocio, 2012, p. 64).

Overall, because speaking requires, without doubt, a certain amount of listening, we can deduce that the majority of speaking activities presented in the second chapter, in addition to the current one, fall under the umbrella of the intertwined condition of these two skills. However, it is up to teachers to select the best activities that respond to both their overall objectives and the level of their students drawing on their Experience or what Davies and Pearse (2009, p. 186) call "the philosophy of language teaching". Feedback, as referred to earlier by Bygate (1987, p. 85), can be pretty valuable for determining how well a selected activity fits the teacher's objectives and how much it aids students' development of their English listening and speaking skills.

3.1.2. Tips for the Good Implementation of the Listening-Speaking Activities

To make listening/speaking activities easier to implement and more practical, Miller (2010) offers five suggestions for teachers to follow. To get students to concentrate on the

activity, the teacher must first introduce the task's content and draw on their prior knowledge. Second, the teacher must give the students adequate information about the activity's goal and the steps for their completion before modelling them for the class. Third, the teacher must delegate the task to the students while acting as the monitor and supervisor by keeping track of their progress, noting their successes and challenges, and repeating the activity (with new partners or with additional readings of the oral text, etc.). Fourth, the teacher evaluates the activity by providing an answer sheet if appropriate, soliciting feedback from the learners and providing feedback on their performance. Last, the teacher has to give a follow-up by managing to use the listening/speaking activity as a lead-in to the next classroom activity, as the basis for a homework assignment, and as the next day's warm-up.

Other suggestions for teachers concerned with teaching English listening and speaking were made by Davies and Pearse (2009). They emphasized the importance of creating a relaxed environment, acquainting learners with listening and speaking in natural interaction, organizing pair and group work, and avoiding any obsession with accuracy (p. 87). They also encouraged incidental classroom speaking, providing learners with the required expressions, and taking advantage of any opportunity for conversation.

Overall, selecting the most appropriate activities that correspond with the previously identified objectives and fit the students' levels and preferences is insufficient for improving students' listening-speaking skills unless it is completed with a plan for their effective implementation. However, this is still not sufficient. Selecting the best materials that can assist the listening-speaking instruction and facilitate the realization of the course objectives is another issue which necessitates great consideration. The next section of this chapter is devoted to selecting and implementing authentic video materials as one of the best pedagogical materials for teaching listening and speaking in EFL contexts.

3.2. Authentic Videos in EFL Listening-Speaking Instruction

As educators and researchers have become more aware of the significance of teaching the communicative aspect of the English language over the past three decades, the value of authentic materials in the language classroom has increased significantly (Ciccone, 1995). This came about as the result of the recognition of a gap between the English taught in the classroom and the one spoken in real life (Febrina, 2017), which made it necessary to integrate this real-life English into the EFL and ESL classrooms. According to Ur (1996), understanding the foreign language outside the classroom is troublesome for learners; that is why they need to experience the real-world language as used by native speakers (p.150). Among those materials, videos are believed to be the most significant when it comes to teaching EFL listening and speaking.

In what follows, we will undergo the difference between authentic and unauthentic materials, the significance of authentic video materials in language teaching in general, and then in EFL listening-speaking instruction. Also, we will demonstrate the different sources of authentic video materials, the criteria for their selection and how to implement them as pedagogical tools in the listening-speaking instruction.

3.2.1. Authentic Vs Unauthentic Materials in the Language Classroom

Generally speaking, a substantial body of related literature defines authentic materials as means typically produced for purposes other than educational settings. Contrastingly, non-authentic materials are defined as instruments used exclusively for teaching. They are planned, designed, and produced based on the curriculum and policy in each country and are usually in the form of textbooks built upon the learner's needs and abilities (Febrina, 2017, p. 733).

Authentic materials, however, are those means which were not initially intended as pedagogical tools. Also known as real-life or genuine materials (Febrina, 2017, p. 732), they were earlier defined as materials designed for their entertainment value rather than language teaching (Stempleski, 1987, p. 3). Cummins (1989) related authentic sources to the native community rather than language learners as he advanced them to be "not designed solely for classroom use but rather for native speakers" (as cited in Ciccone, 1995, p. 203).

Also, Rogers and Medley (1988) concentrated on the specificity of those materials to highlight the genuine and natural aspect of the English language and show how well it is contextualised in the context of native speakers (as cited in Febrina, 2017). In all, authentic materials are "real materials which exist in the real world of the target language, used in their daily life and not produced for teaching purposes", as concluded by Febrina (2017, p. 733).

Yet, recognising authentic materials as useful pedagogical tools in language teaching was primarily supported. For instance, Akbari and Razavi (2016) conducted a study to explore teachers' attitudes toward using authentic materials in EFL classrooms in Iran. They concluded that regardless of their nationality, level of teaching experience, or educational background, all teachers had a positive attitude toward the efficiency of authentic materials in offering genuine input in their classes. Febrina (2017) outlined five benefits of authentic materials in EFL teaching, including: first, enabling learners to experience the real language and have a closer interaction with the target language; second, raising motivation to learn English; third, enhancing communicative competencies; fourth, they are resourceful material to learn about the foreign culture; and last, their value over assisting the teachers in designing and development of the curriculum.

All the previous positive attitudes stated, it is crucial, however, not to ignore the antagonist point of view. Akbari and Razavi (2016, p. 108) mentioned the works of those

scholars who do not trust the use of authentic materials in comparison to unauthentic ones (Clark, 1983; Kienbaum et al., 1986); those who believe they do not fit low-level learners (Kim, 2000); and those who think authentic materials to be de-motivating and culturally biased (Martinez, 2002; McNeil, 1994; Kilickaya, 2004; and Ur, 1996).

Despite the abundance of authentic written, oral, and audiovisual materials available, we want to concentrate on videos because of their widespread use in EFL classrooms, in general, and their value for listening-speaking teaching in particular.

3.2.2. The Significance of Authentic Videos as Pedagogical Means in EFL Classroom

The importance of authentic videos, mainly known as *feature films* or *video drama*, in EFL or ESL contexts, has largely been acknowledged by scholars and educators as a valuable pedagogical means. This significance is primarily focused on three aspects: their value as highly motivating means, their comprehensiveness as sources of cultural knowledge, and their efficiency over comprehension.

First, with regard to motivation, much of the relevant literature highlights how appealing authentic video materials are in language classrooms. Earlier, feature films were described by Susan Stempleski (1987) as one of the most exciting and rich sources of video software for EFL and ESL language classrooms. She argued that such means are, by their very nature, intrinsically motivating to students who experience a real feeling of accomplishment when they can comprehend material intended for an audience of native speakers (p. 3). Similarly, Jane Sherman (2003) argued that the primary reason for using video drama in the language classroom is because students want to. In the same respect, Ciccone (1995, p. 203) underlined the significance of authentic input in increasing motivation and lessening students' stress in the language classroom.

Second, when relating to them as a source of cultural knowledge, Sherman (2003) asserted that video dramas are "central to language learning" as they are a window for the foreign language culture and a genius source for information about:

> …the minutiae of daily life –body language, styles of dress, table manners, gender roles, how people treat their children or talk to their bosses- and indeed the whole feeling of the social landscape, which is particularly strong in realistic soap opera.(p. 12)

Very analogous to this view, Stempleski (1987) believed these means to provide an authentic look at the foreign culture in terms of "how people in the target language culture live their values, customs, clothing, food, and how the people in that culture interact with one another" (p. 6). Ciccone (1995) also believes these instructional resources assist learners in overcoming the initial cultural unfamiliarity they experience when learning a foreign language (p. 203).

Third, authentic videos were widely acknowledged as effective tools for improving language learning in general. Since authentic videos make linguistic input easier to understand, Ciccone (1995) promoted their use in language learning environments. He believed it beneficial to embed learners in a context of extra-linguistic cultural cues "that assures the transmission of meaning even when complete grammatical and lexical decoding is not likely to be achieved" (1995, p. 205). To put it simpler, students rely on the sound and the image to make inferences about the meaning even when they cannot decipher all the words they hear.

Authentic videos can, however, be detrimental in a language classroom, just like authentic materials in general. Davies and Pearse (2009) assumed that "instead of being fun and useful, they can be demotivating, frustrating or boring for the learners" if not selected before hands in accordance with clear objectives and the learners' level and interest (p. 163).

Lynch believed it sufficient to use realistic texts instead of real texts (authentic) if they are used "in a way that helps learners to respond to them appropriately" (2009, p. 100). To put it another way, Lynch preferred the use of texts that mimic real-world situations and use English in a way similar to a certain extent to that of native speakers.

3.2.3. The Significance of Authentic Videos in EFL Listening and Speaking Instruction

In addition to being widely recognized as valuable means in EFL and ESL settings in general, authentic videos have been particularly related to improving listening and speaking skills. According to Bajramia and Ismaili, the primary objective of authentic videos was to facilitate and develop the speaking and listening abilities of EFL learners (2016, p. 504). They add to this their ability to stimulate the learners' autonomy and proactivity in addition to helping them keep attention to lengthy conversations or passages.

In a study conducted by Kim (2015) about the effect of authentic video materials in improving listening skills among low, intermediate and advanced Korean students, results show a positive perception of these materials and a significant improvement in the listening skill, notably listening comprehension, among the intermediate and advanced students.

In terms of EFL speaking, Christopher and Ho (1996) assumed that video movies provide topics and ideas for speakers to discuss (as cited in Bajramia & Ismaili, 2016, p. 505). Similarly, Davies and Pearse (2009,p.167) assumed that, in addition to listening comprehension work, videos can be helpful in various activities that either offer examples of English being used or prompt discussion among the students.

And as long as the oral expression course is concerned, videos and songs proved highly efficient in enhancing EFL students' motivation and participation in oral expression

courses (Lalaouna, 2018). According to this author, students' motivation can be demonstrated through interaction, communication, cooperation, and group dynamics (2018, p. 342).

In general, Wilson (2012, p. 48)emphasized the significance of introducing those means as pedagogical tools (whether on TV or in videos) in language classrooms. He cited three advantages: authenticity; topicality (related to a special topic); the possibility to present real-world information; in addition to the visual aspect. The author believes that seeing the speakers, their context, and their body language in addition to their natural habitat is a huge advantage and a useful source of cultural information.

Moreover, YouTube videos, the today's most famous source of videos, are solicited for their dynamic aspect, since they present moving images which are considered 'a major bonus for students with short attention spans' (Wilson, 2012, p. 48).

Subsequently, all those materials are supposed to provide students with reliable data on the way the language is used in the different real situations in addition to the cultural aspect of the native English speakers. This includes the way natives express themselves, conversational strategies, formal and colloquial language down to the more detailed behaviours as the way they start a discussion, take turns in a conversation, tell a joke, express agreement or dissatisfaction (verbally or not), in addition to body language.

3.2.4. The Source of Authentic Video Materials

In contrast to authentic audio materials such as radios, authentic audiovisual materials, mainly TV and videos, are preferred in language classrooms. According to Miller (2010), television is the most used medium for obtaining authentic listening materials for language instruction. Akbari and Razavi (2016) added videos to TV and explained their significance in the various pictures, movements, colours and body language they offer that enable learners to

access non-verbal information and then facilitate their comprehension of the foreign language (p. 109). To put it more precisely, they believe the internet to be the best source of audio-visual material as they provide teachers with articles, audio clips, podcasts and videos (Akbari & Razavi, 2016, p. 109).Likewise, Berardo (2006) believes that the practicality of internet videos lies in their interactivity; their visual stimulation; and their constant updating as opposed to printed materials, which quickly become out-of-date; (as cited in Akbari & Razavi, 2016, p. 109).

Moreover, among the vast number of videos available on the Internet, films seem to be the most sought-after sources as pedagogical tools in language classrooms. Accordingly, Thornbury (2013, p. 46) asserts that some scriptwriters are geniuses at mimicking the features of natural speech, giving L2 students a superb, extremely accurate representation of how native speakers use their language on a daily basis. According to Eken (2003), films can help students develop the four key skills, gain self-confidence in speaking English in front of an audience, and improve their presentation skills if used properly in the English language classroom.

Additionally, their availability and accessibility are undisputed because they are easily extracted from the internet. YouTube, as one of the most popular free video-sharing websites, offers a huge selection of videos and movie clips that can be used in language classes and even outside. According to Wilson (2012), YouTube videos are not only available and accessible but are quite practical thanks to the pause button, which allows the teacher to manipulate the video and cut it into different segments according to the objectives of the task and the learners' needs.

However, despite their availability, teachers' selection of the most suitable authentic videos as pedagogical tools in their FL classrooms is another crucial point to consider. The criteria that influence and guide this decision are outlined in the coming section.

3.2.5. Criteria for Selecting Authentic Video Materials

As stated by Davies and Pearse (2009, p. 163), only a small portion of the available material will be appropriate for a specific group of students and the teacher's purposes. This depends on two main points: first, the selection of the videos (according to the objectives and the learners' level and interests), and second, the integration of those materials into the lessons (which depends on the availability of video players and video rooms, internet or language laboratories). Earlier, Stempleski (1987) presented a set of criteria that help to decide about which authentic video to introduce in the language classroom (EFL/ESL). This concerns the choice of language, the content and the production (pp. 7-8).

To start with the language, Stempleski (1987) proposed seven requirements for video validation. First, it is necessary to check whether the language used in the video applies to real-world situations that students are likely to encounter. Second, the teacher must verify whether the language is "authentic" in the sense of being close to the language used by native speakers in their daily lives. Third, the video must be contextualised, which means it is presented in a situation that will help students understand the meaning. Fourth, it is necessary to ensure that the characters speak naturally and clearly enough to be understood by students. Fifth, pausing the dialogue from time to time is imperative to allow students to absorb the meaning. Sixth, teachers must guarantee the students' familiarity with the accents presented in the video. Finally, ensure that the video content is compatible with the language features students learn in class.

Regarding the content, Stempleski (1987) invited teachers to ask five questions to check the validity of the video extract (p. 8). This includes if the video's subject matter is likely to be of interest to students; if it accurately depicts the culture of the foreign language country; if the story or topic is treated in an interesting way; if there are any characters or situations that students are likely to encounter; and if the program's presentation is relatively simple. In the same respect, Ciccone (1995, p. 207) believed authentic video materials to provide comprehensible input only if they can be properly adjusted to the level of the learners; if this is not possible, teachers should close the gap between the video's level and that of the learners. This can be possible, according to the same author, by the careful selection of the material, the preparation of the learner (by supplying them with vocabulary and information related to the video content), and the definition of the task required (p. 208).

For the third condition, video extract production, Stempleski (1987) put seven other criteria. The first two are related to the clarity of the picture and sound. The third, fourth and fifth criteria deal with the camera's steady functioning and if it focuses on the people who are speaking using frequent close-ups. In other words, this is necessary for students to see the speakers and concentrate on how they pronounce the words and use body language while speaking. The two last conditions address how appealing, well-acted, and well-directed the video is.

Back to Davies and Pearse (2000), they believed teachers should ask four questions before validating a material as available. The first question asks whether students' potential good understanding of the material is related to their familiarity with using the language or simply because the visual element of the video makes it clear enough. The second concerns the reasons behind students' appreciation of a given material, whether for its interest, its humour or its relevance to their needs. The third relates rather to the possibility of teachers'

possession of useful activities necessary that can exploit the subject well. The final question is about the efficiency of using a given video in terms of how effective it can be and how much it can help save time (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 164).

However, even when the choice of video tools is successful, it remains to implement them correctly in EFL language courses to make them practical for both EFL teachers and learners. The next section is meant to elaborate on this point.

3.2.6. How to Implement Authentic Video Materials in the listening-Speaking Instruction

In general, using videos effectively calls for preparation and knowledge (Davies & Pearse, 2009, p. 163). However, there is no one "right" way to use videos in language teaching as many effective techniques exist just as for using any other educational tool (e.g.,a chalkboard, textbook or computer) (Stempleski, 1987, pp. 8-9). According to the same author, using a particular video extract will be determined by the needs of the learners, the teacher's goals, the equipment available, and the video malarial itself.

However, she suggested some general rules that may help teachers and their learners take advantage of using videos as pedagogical tools in the language classroom. First, she suggested using a1-2 minute short video segments because they are easier for students to digest and may provide enough material for a one-hour language lesson (p. 9). Second, she encouraged repeated viewing, which allows students to master vocabulary, identify characters, and closely examine other aspects of the video. Each time the video extract is played and replayed, an engaging task-based activity is supposed to accompany it.

Third, Stempleski emphasised the importance of using purposeful active viewing, as opposed to passive viewing for pleasure and relaxation, through the assignment of difficult

activities that require students to concentrate on specific aspects of the video, such as cultural differences, setting, situation and language. Fourth, she emphasised the importance of informing students about what they should look for before watching a video segment to intentionally and effectively focus their attention on relevant aspects of the video and more successfully complete viewing tasks assigned by the teacher.

Fifth, to be more confident and better able to handle questions from the students concerning language content or other aspects of the video, she encourages the teachers to view the entire video segment before presenting it to their classes. Finally, to avoid wasting valuable class time looking for a specific scene or button, which may result in a loss of students' interest and motivation, it is critical to become familiar with the used material (machinery) ahead of time.

Similarly, to help students improve their listening skills, Kim (2015, p. 22) argued that authentic video resources must be carefully chosen to minimise difficulties and ensure that their content is of general interest to learners, in addition to the need to repeat the video extract to ensure that they have understood the material. In the same respect, Rost (1991) urged teachers to provide three important services to language learners when teaching interactive listening: simplifying the provided text, providing pre-listening activities, and providing visual support for the listening activity (as cited in Kim, 2015, p. 15). Its capacity to increase learners' interests and motivation and its potential to improve listening skills can hardly be denied. Students, however, might experience frequent difficulty with English idioms and expressions (p. 22).

Yet, the notion of simplifying the content of the authentic material to synchronize it with the learners' proficiency levels is believed to distort the nature and specificity of those materials. Guariento and Morley (2011), for instance, believe that if authentic materials are

edited and simplified, they are no longer authentic, so they must be kept original (as cited in Febrina, 2017, p. 737).

Hence, certain measures are recommended to minimize the difficult nature of the authentic videos and support the learners' comprehension of the language and the cultural input. Before all, it is imperative to show short segments rather than the whole video Stempleski (1987). Moreover, Febrina (2017) encouraged teachers to support their learners by (1) enhancing their sensitivity towards the foreign culture without ignoring the local one; (2) delivering some pedagogical support to introduce and explain the uncommon words or grammar rules presented in the materials to avoid confusion and avoid focusing on the language accuracy; and (3) paying attention to the way of preparing, choosing and executing the authentic materials to diminish the pressure of the FL learning pressure (p. 739).

It is better to introduce video materials with suitable video-based activities to take advantage of these materials in the language classroom (Lynch, 2009; Davies & Pearse, 2009).

Conclusion

All things considered, the intertwined relationship between listening and speaking in EFL teaching has been widely encouraged. Developing communicative competence cannot be possible without effective listening. This is because mastering listening allows for deciphering the different mechanisms of the language and establishing a database of the vocabulary and expressions crucial for EFL oral production and effective interaction in the classroom and real-life situations.

Moreover, most scholars assumed the efficiency of using authentic video segments for both EFL teachers and learners. They can benefit teachers in assisting their teaching, notably

the listening-speaking issue, while creating an enjoyable and motivating atmosphere for their learners. However, this can only be possible if the teachers select the adequate materials that fit their course objectives and their learners' levels, needs and preferences. In addition to the good selection of these materials, proper implementation is critical if the goal is to make the most of these materials and achieve previously set goals.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Research methodology is the alleyway researchers take to conduct their research. It depicts a scholar's path along the research process, from formulating the questions to the execution of the experiment and the acquisition of results and conclusions. It is the section that determines the why and how of the various choices and decisions.

Accordingly, the fourth chapter encompasses the statement of the research objectives and a clear description of how and why the various constituent of the research were chosen and how they were designed to ensure their veracity throughout the various research processes to obtain reliable results and approve or deny the present hypothesis.

4.1. Statement of the Research Aims

Even if the research objectives have been mentioned directly or indirectly in previous chapters, the detailed restatement of these objectives is deemed necessary in this chapter. The aim is to connect the research design and methodology to a precise and clear statement of the objectives.

The present research sheds light on one among many difficulties our students may encounter in their academic pursuit to master English as a foreign language in the English department of Batna2 University. It is about producing the spoken English language with such autonomy and ease as close as possible to how the English natives speak English. Accordingly, the objectives of this research are listed as follows:

1. The attempt to uncover the potential effect of introducing a listening instruction based on authentic video extracts (which stands for the independent variable) on second-year students' EFL speaking skills regarding autonomy and effectiveness (which represent the dependent variable). In other words, the aim is to prove or deny the impact of

teaching listening via some authentic video extracts and well-designed activities on students' English-speaking performance.

2. Investigate the interrelationship between listening and speaking.
3. Provide a model for a more structured and dynamic oral-expression course.
4. Shed light on the EFL oral expression course to portray partly the difficulties that teachers and students may encounter. This is supposed to be demonstrated by introducing two questionnaires; one for 2nd-year students and the other for 2nd-year teachers of oral expression.
5. Help students strengthen their self-confidence and autonomy in the production of the English language by raising their motivation and reducing their excessive dependence on their teachers' and/or peers' help.
6. Check the efficiency of his instruction on students' motivation and the general atmosphere of the OE course.

Furthermore, the introduction of carefully designed activities in the listening and speaking phases of the present instruction is meant to help the students experience other things than the unique traditional activity (*discussion*) and avoid tedious situations by keeping them busy during the session. Similarly, the presentation of the short video excerpts is intended to help diversify students' opportunities to experience other sources of English than the teacher's usual language. It is an attempt to establish a tradition linking the teaching of listening to that of speaking. Finally, and given the importance and the disproportionate influence that the screen exerts on the lives of young people today, we have opted for its introduction to arouse students' enthusiasm towards the course and why not reduce the anxiety that can result from such listening instruction and the English language difficulty.

4.2. Research Design

The research design of the present study stands for drawing the broad outlines which will enable the achievement of the traced and already cited objectives. This mainly concerns accepting or rejecting the research hypothesis and answering the research questions before reaching comprehensive results. This will allow the elaboration of effective recommendations for both EFL oral expression teachers and students. For these reasons, the present work was carried out through two main complementary steps:

1. A pre-experimental phase consisted of two questionnaires administered to second-year teachers and students of the English Department in Batna 2 University.
2. An experimental phase divided into two stages: the Listening-free (LF) and the Listening-based (LB) stages. This phase is concerned with introducing a listening-based instruction in the oral-expression course and observing students' reactions and evolution regarding the reception (listening) and production (speaking) of spoken English.

4.3. The Approach

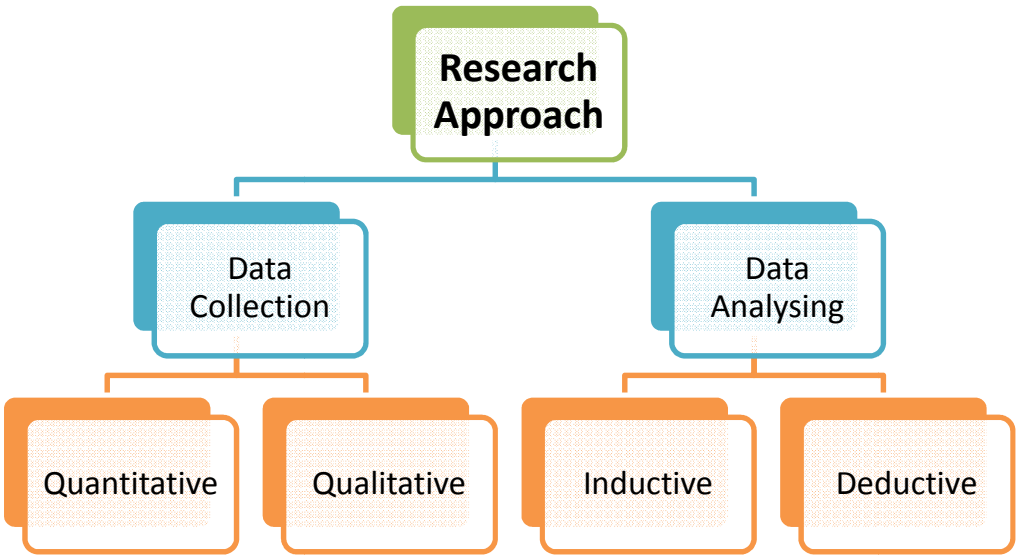
The research approach is a plan and procedure tightly framed by the nature of the research problem being addressed; it consists of steps ranging from general assumptions to detailed methods for collecting, analysing and interpreting data (Chetty, 2016). Accordingly, the research approach is mainly divided into the *data collection* approach and the *data analysis* or *reasoning* approach, as demonstrated in Chetty's schema (see Figure 4 below).

However, when it comes to the research method, the qualitative and quantitative fundamental distinctions of data collection are considered first. In short, as explained by Punch (1998), the difference lies mainly in whether the data of the empirical research are numerical (quantitative) or not (qualitative).

Admitting that research is mainly the systematic investigation to provide answers to a phenomenon or a problem, social sciences areas have traditionally opted for the objective scientific method called quantitative.

Figure 4

Chetty's Illustration of Research Approach



Note. This schema shows divisions and sub-divisions of the research approach, as illustrated by Chetty (2016). Importance of Research Approach in a Research.
Adapted from https://www.projectguru.in/selecting-research-approach-business-studies.
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Yet, since the 1960s, the strong inclination towards a qualitative, naturalistic and subjective approach has led social researchers to start swinging between two completely opposite and competing methods: *the empirical scientific tradition*, which refers to the quantitative paradigm and *the naturalistic phenomenological mode,* which stands for the qualitative method (Burns, 2000). The quantitative and qualitative methods have been allocated, respectively, to the *nomothetic* and *idiographic* approaches (Mcleod, 2019). Nomothetic comes from the Greek word *nomos,* meaning *law,* and studies the shared

similarities between people. It is primarily concerned with establishing laws and generalizations that apply to all people. The word *idiographic*, however, comes from the Greek word *idios* which means *own* or *private,* so interested in everything that makes each of us unique; generalizations are therefore impossible due to chance, free will and the singularity of individuals. In the same context, Burns (2000) provided a clear distinction between these two approaches in the coming few lines:

> In the scientific method, quantitative research methods are employed in an attempt to establish general laws or principles. Such a scientific approach is often termed nomothetic and assumes social reality is objective and external to the individual. The naturalistic approach to research emphasises the importance of the subjective experience of individuals, with a focus on qualitative analysis. Social reality is regarded as a creation of individual consciousness, with meaning and the evaluation of events seen as a personal and subjective construction. Such a focus on the individual case rather than general law-making is termed an ideographic approach. (p. 3)

Quantitative and qualitative approaches are, then, antagonist paradigms. In what follows, a detailed description of this distinction will be provided, including a definition of each approach and a display of the main distinguishing characteristics, strengths and limitations.

4.3.1. The Quantitative Approach

This consists of the type of studies in which the data can be analysed in terms of numbers (Best & Khan, 1989, p. 89). According to this approach, the researcher is supposed to gather data in a numerical form which can be put into categories or rank order, or measured in units of measurement in addition to the possibility to construct graphs and tables of raw data (McLeod, 2019). The methods used may include controlled observations and

questionnaires. There is a need to use the deductive analysis of data with the quantitative approach (Chetty, 2016).

4.3.2. The Qualitative Approach

This procedure is rather concerned with collecting and analysing data 'in as many forms, chiefly non-numeric, as possible' (Blaxter et al., 1996, p.61). According to the same source, this approach aims at achieving depth rather than breadth by exploring, in as much detail as possible, smaller numbers of examples (representatives) believed to be interesting or illuminating. It is also called the flexible approach since it uses different methods to understand how people perceive a given phenomenon. These may include diary accounts, open-ended questionnaires, documents, participants' observation and ethnography (McLeod, 2019). Data are analysed following an inductive approach (Chetty, 2016).

4.3.3. Characteristics, Strengths and Limitations of the Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

To make it brief, the quantitative approach's strength lies in its being objective, rapidly realized, precise and valid. However, it does not consider each respondent's uniqueness which may lead to a superficial exploration of the phenomenon. Also, it requires the researcher to control all the variables and master the statistical analysis tools to guarantee the validity of the research. Conversely, the qualitative approach adds flesh and blood to social analysis since it is based on the researcher's involvement in the research, allowing for an in-depth exploration of the phenomenon. Yet, it is subjective, requires a lengthy time to be realized, and results do not allow for further generalizations on other participants than the original ones. The necessary details are demonstrated in Table 3 below:

Table 3

Comparison between the Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

	Quantitative	Qualitative
Characteristics	• The power to control extraneous variables to identify the causes of a certain phenomenon and prove or deny the cause/effect relationship (theory). • It aims for objectivity. • Statistical analysis and numerical comparisons are used to interpret data. • It is generally conducted in the lab. • The design of the study is determined before it starts. • Operational definitions are determined at the outset of the research to eliminate any confusion in meaning. • Reality is objective and exists separately from the researcher. • It must conform to reliability since the same obtained data must be found if the study is repeated. • Relies on the deductive approach of data analysis.	• The theory is data-driven and emerges as part of the research process, evolving from the data as they are collected. • It is subjective since the researcher is an integral part of the data. • Description and narration are used to analyse data based on personal interpretations. • Events can be understood only if they are seen in a context that involves the researchers in the setting. • The design of the study evolves during the research and can be adjusted or changed as it progresses • There is no single reality. It is subjective and exists only in reference to the observer. • Relies on the inductive approach of data analysis.
Strengths	• Control through sampling and design. • Precision through quantitative and reliable measurement. • The ability to use causality statements through the use of controlled experiments. • Rapid analysis of data (sophisticated software) • Useful for testing and validating already constructed theories. • Replication and validity • The hypothesis can be tested because of the use of statistical analysis.	• Close researcher's involvement leads to better insights and in-depth exploration of the phenomenon. • It suggests possible relationships, causes and effects. • It allows for ambiguities and contradictions, which reflect social reality. • It adds flesh and blood to social analysis.
Limitations	• The difficulty of controlling all the variables. • Not totally objective since the researcher initially chooses the problem and still relies on his personal interpretations. • It leads to the assumption that facts are true and the same for all people all of the time. • It fails to consider each respondent's uniqueness in interpreting things and constructing their own meanings. • Variability: large sizes of participants are needed for more accurate analysis (for the study to be reliable and apt to be generalized to wider populations). • The researcher must be an expert in applying statistical analysis. • Since the researcher is not quite involved and because the focus is on hypothesis testing, they may miss observing important details, resulting in some banal findings.	• Problems of subjectivity and lack of reliability and validity. • Results cannot be replicated to any extent, nor can generalizations be made to a wider context than the one studied. • Lengthy-time is required for data collection, analysis and interpretation • The researcher's presence influences the participants of the study. • Because of the issue of bias, the viewpoints of both the researcher and the participants must be elucidated.

Note. The author realizes this table to summarise the key features, strengths and limitations of each of the quantitative and qualitative approaches drawing on the works of Burns (2000), Hughes (2010), Chetty (2016) and McLeod (2019).

4.3.4. The Mixed /Common Approach

Despite the differences existing between the two approaches, which have been detailed previously (see Table3), many researchers advocate both methods to be valid and wide useful, making of any combination between them a reasonable decision (Punch, 1998; Bryman, 1988). This gave way to the necessity to join both approaches in another distinction "the mixed approach".

Earlier, Best and Khan (1989)denied the assumption which refers to those approaches as mutually exclusive; they rather approve the possibility of using both in one single investigation. More recently, Chetty (2016) considered choosing one research approach over another as a severe limitation of the scope of the study. She believes, drawing on the work of Creswell & Clark (2011), that one approach alone cannot answer all the questions that might emerge in the course of researching a topic; thus, the dichotomy should be reconsidered and researchers should become proficient in both types of approaches.

The next section aims to demonstrate the factors that determine the inclination towards one research approach rather than another.

4.3.5. Factors for Approach Selection

As previously mentioned, there has been recently a widespread debate on the importance of the quantitative and qualitative paradigms in terms of the degree of their credibility and reliability in research. The Positions of individual researchers vary considerably between those who see the two strategies as entirely separate and based on alternative views of the world; and those who support combining the two strategies for better results. Earlier, Bryman(1988)called for a 'best-of-both-words' approach, hinting to the possibility and importance of combining the qualitative and quantitative strategies to support a research project and reach reliable results. What has come to be called the *common*

approach, the *mixed approach* or the *combined approach* is, in fact, the result of that debate. Recently, Clive Seale (2012, p. 162) resumed the advantages of using both paradigms in strengthening the research, since this allows the researcher to compare the results derived from the use of one technique with others obtained from the use of another.

However, the principles on which researchers may build their approach selection vary according to the nature of each research project, the research questions and the epistemological foundation of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. Christina Hughes (2012) suggested six factors to help researchers decide upon the appropriate approach, these include: The research question, the interest direction, the previous literature, practical considerations, knowledge profit and style.

By the research question she referred to what exactly the researcher is seeking to find out. If the researcher opts rather for discovering facts about a certain phenomenon, it is likely to use the quantitative approach. The qualitative model, however, fits better the understanding of human behaviour from the informant's perspective as stated by Minchiello et al. (in McLeod, 2019).

Back to Hughes (2012) factors, the second one determines whether the interest is directed towards making standardized and systematic comparisons (quantitative) or instead making a detailed or in-depth study of the phenomenon (qualitative). The previous literature, however, refers to the extent to which the researcher wants to align their work with the precedent similar researches.

The fourth factor, practical considerations, is a reference to the choice of the approach according to its practicality (e.g., time issues, money, availability of samples and data, familiarity with the subject under study, access to situations …). Else, the knowledge profit deals with how well the selected approach fits the model that will provide more information

on the topic in hand. The last factor relates to the researcher's preferences and idea of what constitutes good research.

On the other hand, making a choice about the approach to be followed does not require a systematic consideration of all of these factors. More specifically, it is better to pay more attention to research questions than to ask questions about what methods to choose to avoid, in some ways, putting the method cart (wagon) before the content horse (Punch, 1998, p. 224). Therefore, it would be better, according to the same source, to consider the research objectives and questions, since the way in which these questions are asked effectively determines the best approach to answer them (p. 225).

4.3.6. The Present Research Approach

Drawing on all that has been said previously, and since the possibility of merging both approaches in the same work has already been admitted by the majority of scholars, the *common approach* also known as *combined approach* (Hughes, 2012) or the *mixed approach* (Chetty, 2016) is chosen to better support the present research objectives and variables and answer the asked questions.

On one hand, quantitative approach is used to analyse students' and teachers' questionnaires along with the different observation grids' data to reach intelligible and numerical results. On the other, the qualitative paradigm is introduced to outline how the oral-expression courses are conducted and show teachers' and students' attitudes towards the listening and speaking issues in the oral-expression course. It also fits the researchers' interpretation of students' reactions, interest and motivation along the experimentation process which are difficult to decipher using the quantitative approach alone. It is also necessary for the analysis of the questionnaires' open-ended questions since they generally bear students opinions and beliefs. The qualitative approach, as precised by Chetty (2016), is

not exclusively used to test the suggested hypothesis but it is a tool for understanding participants' reactions towards the experimental instruction (phenomenon) Chetty (2016). The present study adheres to this point of view

4.4. The Experimental Method

If the research design is a plan to answer the research question, the research method is the strategy used to implement that plan. A clear and precise distinction between the *method*, on the one hand, and the *methodology*, on the other, appears of great importance to avoid any ambiguity. Clive Seale (2012)emphasized the importance of drawing a clear line between what guides any researcher's dissertation (methodology) and the used research methods (techniques) for the fulfilment of the same research. Similarly, Igwenagu (2016) underlined this difference as follows:

> Methodology is the general research strategy that outlines the way in which a research project is to be undertaken and, among other things, identifies the methods to be used in it. These Methods, described in the methodology, define the means or modes of data collection or, sometimes, how a specific result is to be calculated. (p. 8)

Hence, the method is one element of the whole which constitutes the methodology of a given research. Igwenagu (2016) assumes that the two terms are not interchangeable and that the use of one instead of the other leads to confusion and misinterpretation.

As to the present research, the experimental method is the most suitable way to attain the already traced goals and answer the main question of the research. It is the cornerstone of scientific research and is primarily concerned with the cause-effect relationship between the research variables.

4.4.1. Statement of the Research Variables

As previously mentioned, the experimental method is better suited to achieving the goals of the current study because it assesses the impact of changes to the independent variable on the dependent variable. Differently put, the aim is to prove or deny the existence of a relationship between the dependant and independent variables which stand for: introducing a listening instruction based on authentic video extracts (independent variable), and students' EFL speaking skill in terms of effectiveness and autonomy (dependent variable). The video extracts only serve as support for the listening instruction, which would be insignificant if it relied solely on the teacher's spoken English. Thus, these tools are considered as integral part of the accentuation of the listening instruction.

4.4.2. Target Population and Sampling Frame

This section is designed to determine and justify the researcher's choices regarding the target population and the sampling frame of the present experiment.

4.4.2.1. The Target Population

In research terminology, we call a *target population*, all the members who meet the particular criterion specified for a research investigation (Alvi, 2016). In other words, a target population refers to a group of individuals who share common characteristics according to the research purposes. Thus, before the elaboration of any research sample, a clear and accurate definition of the target population must be determined (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006 p. 49).

As to the current experiment, the population is represented by second-year students from the English Department of Batna 2 University. The main reason for this choice lies in the students' experience level. It is a reference to the experience gained in learning EFL, in general, and any knowledge and abilities they may have picked up in the oral-expression course, in particular, during the first year and which no longer classify them as novices.

Therefore, any particular participation in this research is believed to be more or less reliable.

Moreover, a year may not be long enough to reliably master EFL speaking when it comes to the spoken performance of the English language. Students at this level are generally not yet considered qualified speakers, much less qualified listeners. They are therefore neither novices nor proficient and so are best placed to prove or deny the relationship between the dependent and independent variables of this research. To all these reasons, it should be added that second year students belong to the English department of the University of Batna 2, which means that in terms of accessibility, they are more or less within reach of the researcher.

Hence, in order to verify the potential existence of a relationship between an accentuated instruction of listening (through the introduction of authentic video extracts) and the improvement of students' speaking skills, we opted for a random sampling among the eight groups, which made up the whole number of second-year population (350 students) of the English department of Batna 2 University for the academic year (2019/2020).

4.4.2.2. Sampling Size and Selection Techniques

Sampling is the procedure of selecting a subset of individuals from within a defined population to estimate characteristics of the entire population (Igwenagu, 2016). The aim from sampling is not only to save time and effort but also to obtain consistent and unbiased estimates of not only the studied sample but the population status according to whatever is being researched (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006).

In this case, we adopted a simple random sampling method to design students of the experiment sample which are supposed to undergo the experiment. Simple random sampling is the fundamental probability sampling method (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006) and is believed to be an "unbiased survey technique" (Igwenagu, 2016, p. 33). All members of the target population have an equal and independent chance of being included in the random sampling

(Ary, 2010, p. 153). The impartiality of this type of sampling methods fits the present work objectives and nature, since it guarantees an utter random selection for all individuals and affords each the same probability of being selected as any other individual in the target population defined above. Another advantage of simple random sampling is the fact that it is excellent for time and energy saving. A detailed description of the calculation of the number of sample items is reserved for the next section.

Another random sampling was used to create a list of the teachers who have at least two years of experience teaching oral expression to second-year students in order to develop a comprehensive understanding of how oral-expression classes are run and how the listening-speaking issue is approached. In layman's terms, the goal is to draw on these teachers' experience to gather as much information as possible about how they like to manage the course, their preferred teaching methods, and the challenges they have faced. To that end, a questionnaire was developed and tailored specifically for teachers.

4.4.2.3. The Experiment Sample

Since choosing a sampling method requires weighing cost and feasibility against accuracy (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006), a randomized selection was used to elaborate the sample for the present experiment. On the one hand, accuracy in the present work is achieved by the use of a quite approved scientific method "the simple random sampling"; given that random does not mean "haphazard or following no thought-out plan in obtaining sampling elements" (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p. 31). On the other hand, working with smaller groups of students from the entire target population is always preferable to working with larger groups in terms of cost and feasibility, especially when it comes to observation.

As previously explained, the target population, and therefore the sample, is well within the reach of the researcher who has voluntarily been a member of the educational staff of the

English department as an oral-expression teacher for second-year students during the 2019-2020 academic year. Another positive point is that working with a rather small sample requires much fewer expenses than working on the whole target population (all second-year students).Time is another advantage in favour of this method. Working on a limited number of representatives allows the researcher to save time and efforts compared to manipulating the entire population.

However, given that the goal of the current study's use of the questionnaire is to gather information on students' problems, particularly those pertaining to the listening and speaking issue, as well as an overview of how speaking lessons are generally conducted, we thought it would be more beneficial to enlarge the sample of the questionnaire as much as possible (250 participants) to fully benefit from the variety of answers that this number can provide. This represents almost three quarters of the total number of second-year students (350 in total).And given that the researcher is not a permanent teacher in this department and is not well involved in its community, she needs to be sufficiently informed about the teaching course, particularly that of oral expression; hence, a large sample is deemed indispensable.

However, the sample intended for the experimentation (control and experimental groups) was in contrast aimed at being kept to a minimum. This is primarily due to the requirements of realizing a trustworthy observation. In other words, it is much easier to observe a small number of students and note their slightest reactions than to work with a large number. In this respect, and as long as the qualitative paradigm is concerned, Chetty (2016) favoured handling smaller numbers of what he called "interesting representatives" since the goal is the observation of students' reactions and attitudes which are not necessarily measurable. Another aim is the ability to calculate the paired t-Test value, which is necessary for the evaluation of the observation's results and requires the sample not to exceed 30 participants (see Section 4.6).

Hence, given that the whole population representing all second-year students was initially partitioned into 8 groups; and knowing that students' assignment to each group was random, at best, related to the initial letter of their last name which represents no special significance for the present research sampling (regarding students' listening competencies and speech performances); a group of 20 second-year participants was, thus, randomly selected out of the global list to form the sample of the experimentation. Worth to mention here is that each participant student is being used as a control sample against himself/herself (see Section 4.6). Differently put, the same sample will first serve as a control group and then as an experimental group. The reason behind this lies in the fact that we believe comparing the results of the same students before and after the treatment will guarantee more trustworthy results than dealing with two different groups. Moreover, working on the same group saves time and efforts.

It should be noted that the number of sample participants intended to represent the control and experimental groups, as limited as it may seem, could hardly been gathered for a number of interrelated reasons. On the one hand, and given the strong demand that year for the oral expression course intended for second-year students, particularly to carry out their research work, interested researchers were limited to one or two groups each, at most, in order to allow equal opportunities for all. In our case we were allowed only one group of second year level.

Moreover, all the students were already solicited for other research projects and, therefore, were more or less reluctant to participate in oral-expression courses with teachers other than those who were officially listed on their schedules. They affirmed being sufficiently overburdened by their learning obligations, so they were not ready to take on even more. Thereafter, we spend a relatively long time (about 3 weeks) trying to gather the number required to fill the sample of the experimentation contrary to the ease with which the sample

of the questionnaire was designed and manipulated; especially since the researcher was supported by other oral-expression teachers in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires.

4.4.2.4. Teacher' and Students' Questionnaire Samples

Given that the nature and the objectives of this research require an investigation of the oral-expression course, and since teachers are important actors (besides students) in any teaching-learning process, it was deemed necessary to design a teachers' questionnaire to identify the problems from all sides and to provide a clear and holistic vision of the oral-expression course constraints and difficulties in general as well as the position and experience of both sides (teachers and students) regarding the listening-speaking issue in particular.

Consequently, eight oral-expression teachers were chosen at random to complete the questionnaire, including two permanent teachers with more than ten years of experience in the subject and three others who were already in charge of the oral expression module for the level of second-year students that year. This selection was based on the teacher's affirmation that they have taught second-year classes for at least two years. The reason for such a condition is to ensure that the participants have already experienced teaching oral expression to the chosen level (second year); so able to provide a worthy contribution.

Concerning the students' questionnaire sample, the researcher distributed the questionnaires randomly to a number of two hundred fifty respondents (250) which represent 71% of the entire population of second-year students in the English department in that year, including the 20 students who were chosen to make up the experimental sample. As emphasized by Allwrigt & Bailey (1991), the goal is to gather enough data about the oral expression course and students' experiences with the EFL listening and speaking matters before being certain to make appropriate decisions in accordance with the research objectives.

4.4.3. The Course of the Experiment

Theoretically speaking, the experiment was conducted over the course of twenty-eight sessions, or roughly seven months, with an average of one session per week. However, in reality, it took us much longer to put the carts behind the horse! The daunting task of gathering enough students for the sample; the unexpected absence of students; occasional power cuts; as well as certain political events, in particular the popular *Hirak* (mass manifestations against the former Algerian political regime listed under the Arab Spring), which frequently hampered the course of university life, including the present study.

Hence, twenty-eight sessions were organized with a frequency of one session per week (except for the 9th and 10th sessions which were conducted in the same week since they cover the same topic). More precisely, twenty-six sessions evenly divided the pre-experimental and experimental stages, plus two additional sessions: one for first contact and one for completing the students' questionnaire.

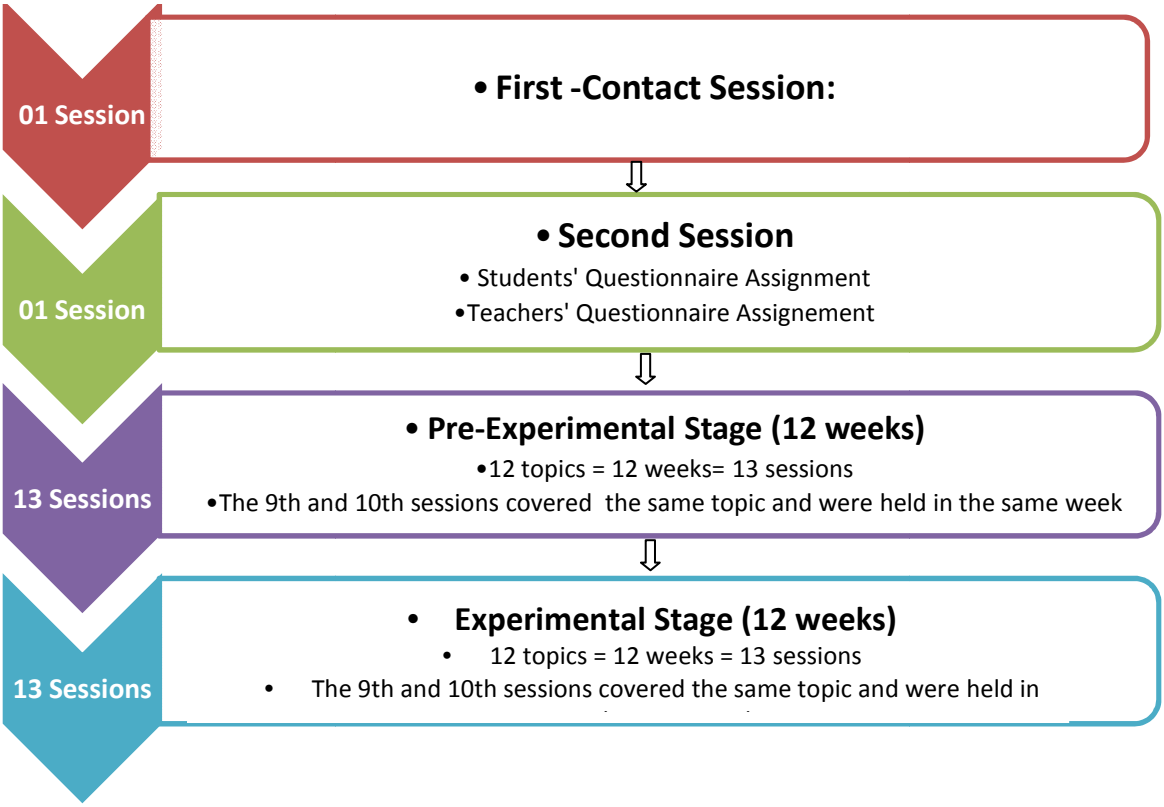
The so-called first-contact session was planned to introduce the teacher to the participants, get a sense of their starting point, and create a more or less friendly environment to reduce the stress that is typically associated with the lack of familiarity. Subsequently, there was an attempt to encourage students to participate in the course and share responsibility for their learning by suggesting topics they would like to discuss and videos they would like to watch (see classroom observation section) in the oral-expression course. The next session, the teacher kindly invited the students to answer the questionnaire. It is important to note that the researcher remained vigilant, not revealing information about the nature and trends of the research.

In other words, she concealed the real objectives of the course to avoid any impartial attitude towards the question of listening and speaking and to preserve the spontaneous

reactions of the students to obtain reliable and plausible results. The experiment's duration with the number of sessions and topics are illustrated in the diagram below.

Figure 5

Course of the Present Experiment



Note. Designed by the author, this figure displays the course of this study including the first and the second sessions in addition to the pre-experimental and the experimental stages' twenty-four sessions, in terms of the topics, sessions and weeks.

During each session, the researcher oversees the smooth running of the teaching-learning procedure according to a plan established on the standards of scientific research and the course objectives. As previously mentioned, students were randomly assigned to the experimental sample with total discretion about the distinctiveness of the course to avoid any influence on their attitudes or behaviours and ensure the research results' validity. The

following section will go into more detail about additional steps taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the current research (see Section 4.4.3.1).

Moreover, piloting questionnaires were first passed randomly to a small number of students to bring out misunderstandings, test the questions' consistency, omit items dealing with the same issue but in different ways, and reformulate ambiguous questions. In the same way, a piloting questionnaire was submitted to some teachers to be able to decide about the final form of the relevant questionnaire (see the coming sections).

The teacher set up the second session for the sample students to complete the questionnaires once the final form was ready. The other two hundred and thirty (230) students of the questionnaire sample were similarly assigned to answer the survey by their oral-expression teachers, each within their scheduled sessions. Without the effective collaboration of these teachers, this stage would be much longer and more difficult. The responses were then coded and thoroughly analysed.

At the same time, each of the eight collaborative teachers was graciously invited to complete the appropriate teachers' questionnaire. Similarly, responses were carefully examined, and results were compared to those of students in order to form a holistic picture of both partners' attitudes toward the oral-expression course, their preferences for teaching-learning methods and tools, and the particular difficulties they encounter when it comes to listening and speaking issues.

Following that, thirteen pre-experimental sessions (dubbed the *listening-free* stage) were developed, during which various topics were addressed using carefully selected authentic video extracts. As mentioned earlier, one session per topic was scheduled each week, with the exception of the ninth and tenth sessions, which focused on the same subject. The emphasis

on teaching listening in the experimental sessions (the *listening-based* stage), as opposed to the pre-experimental sessions, was the only significant difference between the two.

4.4.3.1. Research Validity and Reliability

It is obvious that the value of any research lies in the quality of its process and results. However, we cannot apostrophize quality without evoking issues as validity and reliability. This implies compliance with certain criteria as underlined by Seale (2012 p. 162). The first criterion deals with whether the research design (including the research instrument, the sample, the tools selected, etc.) meets scientific standards and therefore is capable of leading the researchers to their purposes. The second criterion refers to whether the use of the same research design by other researchers would broadly reach the same results. The third concerns whether the same research design would have identical results if applied among another group of participants sharing the same characteristics as the initial sample or whether those results could be generalized to a wider population.

And since the aim behind any scientific research, including the present one, is to provide reliable results that can be later extrapolated to draw reliable conclusions for the entire target population, strict measures have been taken to guarantee validity and reliability. A major step is to promise the results' both internal and external validity.

For internal validity to be realised, it is crucial to ensure that any potential change in the dependent variable—in this case, students' English-speaking skill—during the treatment phase is solely attributable to the independent variable (the listening-based instruction). So, by keeping the factors constant during both phases of the experiment, the researcher attempted to control all variables that could prevent the achievement of internal validity, with the exception, of course, of the changes brought about by the introduction of the independent variable.

Some factors were considered to ensure the internal validity. Along with being mostly chosen at random, the use of paired sampling is meant to guarantee that any adjustments in participants' attitudes or performance are primarily due to the inclusion of the independent variable. Also, the participants were supposedly exposed to the same topics in both stages, but in fact, one major distinction made them different: the way the topics were presented and treated. Additionally, the number of sessions designed for each stage was managed as much as possible to maintain a certain balance between the stages' durations. In other words, the aim is to make sure that any eventual changes in the experimental stage have nothing to do with the number or length sessions. Similarly, the sessions' length of both stages was kept relatively equal and in line with the conventional duration of the oral-expression sessions (one hour and a half) to exclude any probable influence on the subsequent results.

Moreover, it is worth remembering that the introduction of video extracts in the experimental stage (listening-based) is deliberately intended to support the listening instruction, in order to give participants a chance to experience the everyday English language. In other words, the video extracts are only used to support the implementation of the listening instruction; thus, together they form the independent variable of the present research. Given these considerations, and the potential for unintended spontaneous listening acquisition in the pre-experimental stage, the only distinction intended is an *emphasis* on listening-teaching in the experimental stage that conforms to the present independent variable.

For external validity to be attained, a major element must be realized: the 'generalizability' of research results to ensure their validity over the whole population. This generalizability was ensured through the randomization of the sample. Furthermore, in an attempt to avoid the biased effects, the researcher took some extra measures to ensure the validity and reliability of the experiment and its results. Here is a reference to the John Henry, the Pygmalion and the Hawthorne effects.

The John Henry effect was first introduced by Gary Saretsky (1972) to become one of the most instrumental elements of scientific research. This refers to the tendency of the control group to perceive themselves as dispised compared to experimental counterpart, which is rather perceived as a threat or a competitor aiming at surpassing or replacing its counterpart the control group (Saretsky, 19721, p. 579).Fortunately, in the present research, no favouritism is possible, since the elements of the control and experimental groups are the same. Issues of inferiority or disadvantage that may be evoked by the control group members (Kocakaya, 2011) can in no way take place in this research.

When it comes to the Pygmalion effect, Rosenthal and Babad (1985) supposed that our expectations of certain behaviours from others cause us to tend to act in ways that make the expected behaviour more likely to occur. In educational contexts, this implies that positive teacher expectations positively affect student performance, and vice versa. To put it another way, better performances will occur to some extent if the current researcher raises her expectations for the participants' listening-speaking performance. This would not be necessarily bad if she was acting just as a teacher. However, regarding the present research work, she is actually more a researcher than a teacher, so such expectations (whether positive or negative) may generate biased results that will certainly mislead the whole research. Accordingly, the researcher ensured that the experiment occurred under very conventional conditions in the English department and made sure not to put anything forward that would make students think she had high or low expectations of them.

The Hawthorne effect is another important matter to keep in sight to guarantee unbiased and reliable results. Drawing on some American industrial experiments (the 1920s and 1930s) concerning the influence of changing working conditions (e.g., lighting) on employee productivity, the researchers found that productivity automatically increased when employees became aware that they were being observed, regardless of any change in working

conditions. The Hawthorne effect is used, since then, to describe an individual's tendency to change their behaviour that results from awareness of being observed. In Academic research, it is defined as the probable circumstantial short-term improvement that results from learners' awareness of the researcher's intention to observe them for a special purpose other than teaching the habitual course objectives (Kocakaya, 2011).

In our case, any attempt to exclude the Hawthorne effect requires first a total discretion about the main trends of the research. In terms of observation, the researcher assured that the participants did not feel judged for their abilities to listen and speak in order to preserve spontaneity. In terms of evaluation, students were informed that they will be marked according to the customary scale of evaluation including speaking and discussion abilities, participation and attendance as well as their performance in the various activities related to the course; no specific reference was made to the listening-speaking issue. Regarding the questionnaires, the researcher made sure that all respondents understand that their answers will be treated with complete discretion and will in no way be taken into account in their assessment.

4.4.4. Data Gathering Tools

For a systematic collection of data to be carried out under well designed and reliable scientific procedures, researchers must first refine the selection of tools. Differently put, doing research is essentially a matter of data collection and analysis (Allwright & Bailey, 1991), following a rigorous structured procedure to, on the one hand, avoid any waste of time or resources and, on the other, adequately answer the research question (Seale, 2012).

For the present research concern, two data collection tools were used: self-completed questionnaires and structured observation schedules. This comes down to two main reasons:

these tools are seen the best for classroom research (Allwright & Bailey, 1991) and they are best suited to achieving reliable and generalizable results in this particular study.

4.4.4.1. Questionnaires

The importance of questionnaires as one of the most common data-gathering instruments has long been shown through their widespread use in different disciplines notably statistics, sociology, psychology, and market research in addition to educational studies. The current research, indeed, falls under the last discipline. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009) argued that since the essence of scientific research is to try to find answers to questions in a systematic way, it is not surprising that questionnaires have become so popular in studies. Many definitions have emerged as a result of this popularity; Brown's being among the most significant. He defined questionnaires as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements" to which the participants are to react "either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (2001, p. 6).

Brown's definition shows two of the most important features of this type of data collection instruments: the answers to the questionnaires must be written and by the respondents themselves. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009)drew attention to questionnaires' ability to yield three types of data: factual, behavioural and attitudinal.

Factual questions are rather used to find out who the respondent is in terms of age, gender, race, religion, marital and economic status, occupation, level of education, etc. Behavioural questions are used to gather information about what the respondents are doing or have done in the past as their actions, lifestyles, habits and personal history. Attitudinal questions, however, are used to discover the respondents' way of thinking in terms of their attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests and values. All these distinctions have been taken into

consideration while designing the teachers' and students' questionnaires (see the next two sections).

Table 4

Advantages and Disadvantages of Questionnaires and Interviews

	Interviews	**Questionnaires**
Advantages	• The presence of the interviewer allows for the possibility to use complex questions. • The prospect to ask more open questions to gather information from the non-verbal clues to support what interviewers say. • The possibility to use lengthy interviews. • The possibility to introduce visual aids. • The opportunity to control context and the environment where the interview takes place (e.g., direct the order of answers, and assist misunderstandings).	• Questionnaires allow for reducing biasing errors caused by the researcher's characteristics. • Allow the answerer enough time to gather information and consider his/her answers. • Cheap to administer. • Questionnaires allow for a greater geographical coverage since they can be printed then distributed whether hand-to-hand or posted, mailed or e-mailed. • The anonymous aspect of questions with the non-assistance of the researcher reduces the answerers' timidity and raises the reliability of the answers.
Disadvantages	•Expensive to administer. • Luck of reliability due to the biasity of the interviewer which result from his personal characteristics (e.g., sympathetic or unfriendly, the way questions are asked). • Luck of reliability due to biasity of the respondents in case there is an intention to satisfy the interviewer with what they think a desirable answer.	• Questionnaires must be short and clear to compensate for the researcher's non-assistance in clarifying misunderstandings. • The researcher has no control over who fills out the questionnaire.

Note. This table is designed by the author to summarize Seal's (2012) advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires and interviews.

Still, there is a similar type of data-gathering instruments which may be confused with questionnaires. Clive Seale (2012) presented a clear analogy between interviews and self-

completed questionnaires according to the advantages and disadvantages of each (see Table 4).While interviews and questionnaires visibly follow an analogous principle of extracting information from respondents' answers, there are still differences that make each standing by itself. While questionnaires' answers, as beheld in Brown's definition above, must be written out by the respondents themselves, no matter if the answer has been totally generated by the answerer or selected from an established list; interviews, conversely, must be recorded by the interviewer. However, many other distinctions differentiate the two instruments, as summarized in Table 4, drawing on Seale's comparison.

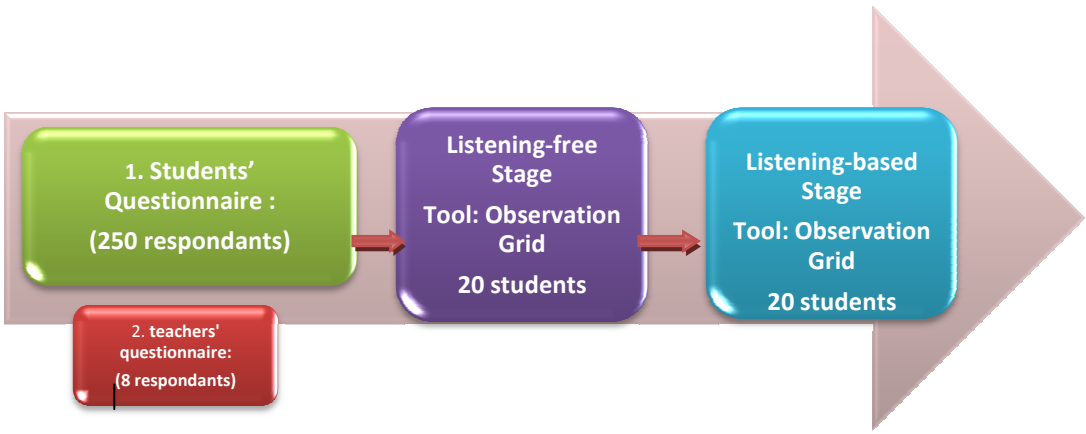
With regard to the current study, those distinctions, particularly cost and reliability, strongly influenced our choice to collect data using a self-completed questionnaire rather than in-person interviews. Besides being cheap to manage and time saving, they raise reliability by excluding the researcher's bias and influence over the answerer. This is because the absence of the researcher and the anonymous nature of the questionnaire help shy respondents feel comfortable and alleviates feelings of anxiety that may result from the interviewer's presence. Also, questionnaires are better recommended in case of foreign languages, English in our case, because they allow respondents enough time to think about, revise their answers and overcome language lack of competence or timidity.

However, questionnaires, to be effective, must cover short and clearly designed questions to compensate for the absence of the researcher's support and explanations while answering. This requires the researcher to be particularly skilful and precise in the elaboration of the questions to guarantee that they are readable, intelligible and conform to the research objectives. In sum, the need is for a precise but concise form. All these measures were taken into consideration with the greatest care when designing the questionnaires for this survey.

In all, as mentioned earlier, two different questionnaires were designed and administered to achieve the research objectives: one for teachers and one for students. One objective is to have an overview of the general conditions that characterize the oral expression course and collect the attitudes of second-year students about the course and the methods. Another is the will to take advantage from the experience of some relatively expert teachers regarding the listening-speaking issues. Piloting questionnaires were first distributed to ten students and three teachers to detect gaps and adjust the final shape of the questionnaires. The procedure of the present experiment is resumed in Figure 6.

Figure 6

The Experimental Design and Procedure of the Present Research



Note. This diagram was designed by the author to demonstrate the major steps undertaken for the fulfilment of this study.

4.4.4.1.1. Piloting the Questionnaires

Researchers obviously need to pay close attention to the design and presentation of questions because they are the fundamental building blocks of any questionnaire. The misunderstanding or misinterpretation of a question may engender serious results and lead the whole research to collapse. For these reasons, piloting a questionnaire is widely

recommended by scholars, regardless of the field of investigation and the population of study. A pilot, then, is meant to avoid ambiguity as much as possible to increase reliability, validity and practicability of a questionnaire and meet the research objectives (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2005, p. 260). It helps the researcher detect weaknesses in design and the instrumentation of the questionnaire (Cooper, 2008, p. 91).

Accordingly, two pilot questionnaires were distributed with the assistance of two colleagues from the English Department Batna2 University. The first questionnaire was assigned to three oral expression teachers; with at least two years of experience as teachers of the course in question. It is precisely a matter of relying on their reactions to the general design of the questionnaire and on the way in which they perceive and answer the questions to introduce useful modifications and model a better final form. Similarly, the second questionnaire was assigned to ten students who were randomly selected from the whole population of second-year students. Thanks to the two previously mentioned teachers, this step was easily achieved. They volunteered to distribute the questionnaires to their students at random and collect them back.

The questions were written in simple English. They varied between closed-ended and open-ended questions. The first type of questions required respondents to select one of the suggested options or respond with a yes or no before checking the corresponding box and providing an explanation for their selection, if necessary. With the second type of questions, the respondents could express their views using their own words within a limited blank space. Yet, choosing one type or the other remains a question of which type best suits the researchers' objectives. In plain English, this is a matter of which type would be the best for obtaining the information in terms of quality and quantity.

According to Susan Farrell (2016), closed-ended questions are often good for surveys. She argued that they are easy to analyse and allow higher response rates since they demand fewer efforts from the answerers. However, she believes that with closed-ended questions there is a risk to accidentally limiting someone's answers to only things the researcher believes to be true; at worse it would bias the respondent's answer. Conversely, even if open-ended queries are difficult to analyse, they allow the participant to give a "free-form" answer and thus allow researchers to find more than they expect; they, therefore, multiply the number of anticipated options if they chose to turn those questions into closed-ended ones. Farrell (2016) compared the two types and assumed that when the researchers ask people to explain things to them, they often reveal surprising mental models, problem-solving strategies, hopes, fears, and much more; whereas when the answers are suggested, respondents may reveal what researchers are looking for in a biased way, whether directly or indirectly.

In light of what has already been said, the piloting questionnaire was initially designed with a large number of open-ended questions to prevent limiting the participants' options and thereby maximizing their genuineness and experience. And for reliability to be realized, some measures were undertaken. Respondents (teachers and students) were invited to treat each question carefully and take sufficient time to answer them. And to avoid the Hawthorne effect, students were reassured of respect for anonymity and were informed that the answers would not be judged or marked by their professors but would rather be used for other research reasons. Similarly, neither teachers nor students were informed of the research subject or objectives, and no mention was made of the issue of teaching listening in oral expression classes. Moreover, considering the demanding responsibilities of teachers, they were allowed three days to submit their responses.

The in-depth consideration of the various responses to the teachers' and students' piloting questionnaires made it possible to identify shortcomings, which led to a

reconsideration and modification of the form, length and terminology of certain questions. It turned out that some questions are better assimilated if transformed into closed-ended questions and vice versa. Once all the modifications had been made, the final form of the questionnaires was ready to be assigned to the experimental sample of teachers and students.

4.4.4.1.2. Description of the teachers' Questionnaire

As mentioned in the previous section, eight oral expression teachers from the English department, including the three participants in the pilot survey, were very cooperative and agreed to participate in this research by devoting part of their time to share their experience and knowledge and answer the final questionnaire. Their responses are supposed to be quite helpful in providing the researcher with an in-depth view of how the oral-expression courses are handled (including the methods and the used techniques) and how they approach the listening-speaking issue.

Foremost, at the top of the document, the teachers' help, experience and sincerity were gratefully solicited and brief definitions of the speaking skill and fluency have been provided to avoid misinterpretation, and guarantee the questionnaire's validity. Drawing on Nation and Newton (2009) definitions, the speaking skill was advanced as to be based on two elements: *autonomy* which is the capacity to speak while relying only on oneself; and, *effectiveness* in producing the oral language which can be noticed in the speed and the almost effortless way of orally producing the language. *Fluency*, as understood in this research, and as defined by Francine Chambers (1997), is instead used in its broader sense as a synonym for overall oral competence. In general, the questionnaire was divided into five distinct sections, each with a specific set of questions. More precisely, thirty items between open and closed questions, written in simple English, organized with numbers and divided into five main sections make up the whole of teachers' questionnaire.

The first section, consisting of four main questions, was mainly aimed to help gathering general information about the participating teachers in terms of gender, age, experience and whether the teaching oral expression was their choice or simply imposed by the administration. The four questions are factual questions, according to Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009) questions' distinction (see Section 4.4.4.1). They were designed for the most part in a closed form because the answers requested are precise and therefore do not necessitate to be developed, except the fourth which requires justification.

The second section primarily investigates teacher's experience in the oral expression course. It is composed out of seven items (from question 5 to 11), between open and closed-ended questions. The main objective is to have an overview of the methods used by each teacher to approach the oral-expression course and how learners react to these methods in terms of motivation. Also, the last three items of this section inspect teachers' use of other languages, including French, Arabic and Algerian dialects in the oral expression course in addition to the frequency, and the reasons behind the need to introduce those languages.

The third section is composed out of 11 items (from 12 to 22), mostly behavioural questions, and proportionally is the largest part of the questionnaire. It is much more concerned with the way teachers deal with the listening-speaking issue, the way they deal with their students' weaknesses and how speaking mistakes are corrected. Moreover, special attention is given to how teachers' approach the mastery of certain features of oral speech such as those relating to the language system, fluency and autonomy, in addition to efforts to increase students' motivation and interest in the meant course. The last four questions deal primarily with how teachers perceive devoting part of the oral session to teaching listening strategies to help learners develop their speaking skills.

The fourth section is meant to gather information related to teachers' standpoints about the introduction of authentic-video extracts as a teaching material in the oral-expression course. More precisely, the last eight items (from 23 to 27) investigate teachers' experience, if there is any, and views about the use of those means on students' motivation towards this course and their listening-speaking skills improvement.

The last section embodies the last three questions. Mainly attitudinal questions (see Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009), section 4.4.4.1) they rely primarily on teachers' perceptions rather than the literal experience. We believe that even though teachers may not have literally experienced teaching speaking through listening instruction using real video excerpts, their years of experience instructing oral expression have allowed them to gain trustworthy insight that can assist us in answering a number of questions, particularly those pertaining to motivation, effectiveness, and autonomy.

4.4.4.1.3. Description of Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire for second-year students has been cautiously designed to proffer a reliable document adapted to their level in terms of simplicity and comprehensibility. With the precious help of some colleagues, two-hundred and fifty questionnaires were randomly distributed to second-year students, among whom the 20 students of the sample. The number is relatively large but very useful if the objective is to cover an extensive spectrum to collect various responses capable of covering the entire population and providing a satisfactory amount of information on the problem of listening-speaking in oral expression contexts. However, we must acknowledge that this number was somewhat difficult to manage and that data collection took a relatively long time.

The students were asked to consider each question with great sincerity and take enough time to write clear and readable answers. In addition, the researcher and her fellow

colleagues (who volunteered to help distribute and collect the questionnaires) informed all participants that their serious contribution to the questionnaire is of great use for scientific research. Respondents were told that their answers should remain anonymous and that no ratings would be attributed to them as feedback.

After collection, the answers were evaluated and analysed according to scientific analytical and arithmetic methods using Microsoft Excel to learn from students' experience in the oral expression course and sketch a general vision on their perspectives and their difficulties with regard to listening and speaking, in addition to their experience and opinions about video extracts as pedagogical tools.

And to ensure the validity of the questionnaire, the teachers supervised the operation until the collection of the answers to avoid the participants having recourse to other people to answer for them. In other words, the questionnaires were administered and returned in the same session, unlike the teachers' questionnaire.

The researcher introduced the students' questionnaire within a few lines defining it as a data collection tool for the accomplishment of some research without special reference to the research topic. Also, the respondents in each group were informed that their selection is done at random; that they are just participants among many others; and that their responses engender no form of judgment, rating or special treatment on the part of their teachers. As with the teachers' questionnaire, definitions of the speaking skill and fluency were afforded at the top of the document to avoid misinterpretation (see Appendices: The Students' Questionnaire).

The entire survey was divided into four 'untitled' sections in order to protect the secrecy of each section's goal and to maximize the likelihood of spontaneous responses. Each

section includes a set of questions written in simple English and organized with numbers in a given order ranging from more general questions to more subtle and detailed ones.

The first section consists of four questions (from 1to 4) and aims at gathering general information about the two-hundred and fifty participants (factual questions). This includes gender, age, whether studying English is their choice or an obligation, and what they prospect to do with these studies. The aim behind the two last questions is to get informed about students' attitudes towards studying English in general, their intrinsic motivation and interest as well as their future perspectives.

The second section deals with students' attitudes towards the methods and languages previously adopted in the oral-expression course. This section, which ranged from the fifth to the fifteenth question, was made up of ten items, the majority of which were closed-ended and swinging between behavioural and attitudinal questions. The first question (Q5) targets whether students' like or do not like the meant course. This is mostly supposed to give us insight into students' motivation and enthusiasm towards this course.

The next nine items (6 to 15) relate primarily to students' experience with the way oral lessons have been delivered over the past year(s). Through the sixth and seventh questions, the researcher sought to know the different activities adopted by the teachers; and students' reactions to these activities. The questions ranging from the eighth to the fifteenth were meant to provide data on the extent to which teachers tend to engage their students in the teaching-learning process in terms of the choice of the topic and who speaks the most in the oral-expression course. Particular attention has been paid to whether English is the exclusive language used in these courses or if, for some reasons, an extra language interferes (e.g., French, classical Arabic or local dialects).In other words, the investigator projects to know the participants' degree of exposure to English in terms of whether it is the exclusive language

used (by the students and their teachers);or if there is a tendency to seek refuge in a better-mastered language/dialect to compensate for EFL shortcomings, on the part of students; or find the easiest way to clarify ambiguities and realize safe teaching, on the part of teachers.

The third section is the most important part of the questionnaire. It mainly deals with students' experience with the listening-speaking issue in the oral-expression course. It encompasses eleven items from the sixteenth to the twenty-third question.

The first four items (16-19) investigate the difficulties encountered by students when speaking English in addition to how they cope with those difficulties and what strategies they generally use to compensate for them. These include vocabulary shortage, activation problems, fluency problems, speed and pronunciation in addition to affective problems, including shyness, fear of being embarrassed when making mistakes, or hate to be corrected in front of others. Students were asked to choose among six suggested strategies those they think they are most likely to use when having difficulty in speaking English. In the nineteenth question, participants were invited to select, based on their experiences, the option that shows how the selected compensation strategy can be useful. Moreover, the researcher aimed, through the three next questions (20-22) to gather information on the participants' previous experience with compensation strategies and the listening instruction in the oral expression course. The last item aims to explore whether the two-weekly sessions, scheduled for the oral expression course, are sufficient for the development of their English-speaking proficiency.

The last section is widely devoted to overview students' previous experience with authentic video-materials in Oral expression settings and their position from the use of those means as pedagogical materials (24-30).The first question in this section examines respondents' tendencies regarding watching videos in English. The researcher did not consider it necessary to ask the students about their love for the screen, given that it is one of

the major characteristics of their so-called "Z generation". It is obvious that all of today's students have grown up around screens, whether they be those of a computer, smartphone, video game console, digital tablet, or, of course, television. Participants were asked to follow their choice with a justification in order to obtain information about their readiness (or probable unwillingness) to deal with videos in English in the oral-expression classroom. If they answered 'yes', they should specify which English they prefer (25th question).This helps the researcher know the language preferences of the students and take adequate decisions.

Moreover, the researcher designed three questions (from 26th to 28th) to explore students' prior experience with videos, regarding familiarity, frequency of exposure and opinions about video use in oral-expression courses. Further, students were solicited to choose, in terms of *content*, the type of extract they prefer to watch (e.g., films, documentaries, news, TV show, etc.). The aim is to collect as much information as possible to meet students' preferences and relate them adequately to the research objectives. The last question (30th) look at students' opinions about the potential role of a listening instruction based on well selected video extracts over the development of their speaking skills. This is, just, intended to inform the researcher about students' perceptions of the potential value of this method over the improvement of their speaking skills; in addition to their initial readiness to cooperate with this method. Indeed, this value cannot be confirmed or refuted until after the current course of treatment.

4.4.4.2. Classroom Observation

In its broadest sense, observation is seen as one of the taken-for-granted activities that occur every day of our lives, whether at work, in family, or in social situations (Wragg, 2011). As human beings, we are very used to observing things and our fellow human beings. We begin scrutinizing the outside world at an early age until "they finally screw the lid on us" (Wragg, 2011, p.vii). Most academics have long confirmed the importance of observation

(Robson, 1993; Cooke & Simpson, 2008; Hopkins, 2008; Cowie, 2009; Wragg, 2011; Cohen & Goldhaber, 2016). Wragg thinks that much of what people see are repeated versions, with variations, of what they have observed many times before; thus, he concluded that without the powers of observation and deduction, most humans would have died years ago (2011 p. vii).

When it comes to research, observation is a common word in the jargon of teachers and academics. By and large, it is believed essential for the execution and improvement of the scientific research. In this respect, Neil Cowie believed that observation, in the first place, is closely associated with ethnography, but also common in *action research*, *case study*, and *mixed methods* as part of a bank of data collection methods to gather information on given problems or issues or to answer questions related to a research study (2009, p. 166). Subsequently, he defined it as the conscious noticing and detailed examination of participants' behaviour in a naturalistic setting.

In classrooms settings, however, observation is generally believed to be a valuable tool for the improvement of teaching. Probably one of the most influential pioneering works on classroom observation is that of Nina Spada (1987). The investigation was held at an English-speaking university in Canada. Results demonstrated the value of school observation to understand "what really happens in the classroom" (as cited in Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1992 p. 87). Differently put, the importance of classroom observation was proved over teaching methodology. Since then, much has been said on this subject.

As a data-collection technique, Robson characterized classroom observation as to be supportive or supplementary since it can complement or set in perspective data obtained by other means (1993, p. 192). On a general level, classroom-based observation is very useful for teachers since it helps them "expand their knowledge, reflect on their own practice and forge their own professional vision" (Cooke & Simpson, 2008, p. 135). In general, classroom

observation goes hand in hand with interviews or questionnaires as a great tool for collecting data in the classroom. Indeed, it provides "important preliminary information about participants' external behaviour which can then be followed up with questions about their inner values or beliefs" (Cowie, 2009, p. 166).

However; despite the noted reputation of school-based observation and its significance over teaching and learning improvement, it has been criticized by some academics. Hopkins (2008) acknowledges that classroom observation is "a good thing," but he fears teachers' propensity to draw hasty conclusions about students' behaviour (p. 75). He believes that moving to judgment too quickly is one of the main characteristics of poor observation. Chetty et al., for instance, confirmed the evidence of classroom observation over predictions of students' test achievement but denied the evidence of an existing relationship between classroom observation and long-term students' outcomes (as cited in Cohen & Goldhaber, 2016, p. 384).

By and large, if handled carefully, classroom observation can be a valuable tool in that it can illuminate even the most familiar of classroom events (Wragg, 2011). In other words, it can help teachers develop their professional skills. On the one hand, they get the power to scrutinize everything that is going on in the classroom. On the other hand, they can pay attention to their students' slightest, seemingly insignificant behaviour when faced with a given topic with a given material and in a given setting. However, if handled improperly, it may become ineffective or even dangerous, igniting hostility, resistance, and suspicion in the minds of the observed students (Wragg, 2011, p. 2).Along the same lines, and to address such a situation, Hopkins emphasized the importance of clarifying and determining the purpose of classroom observation before designing the classroom observation checklist(2008, p. 86).

Moreover, prefacing a series of observations with a "joint planning meeting," as Hopkins (2008) calls it, is critically important in introducing the observer and observational objectives to the students observed. However, defined in this way, the *joint planning meeting*, is deemed inadequate since we tend to avoid students' biased reactions which may influence the research results (see Section 4.4.3.1).However, in order to apply Hopkins' theory to the present study, a first contact session was held at the beginning of the experiment in order to build rapport with the students, encourage their participation in the course, and get them to take an active role in their own education, if only by suggesting topics and videos they would like to work on.

By involving students in the teaching process and fostering their motivation and interest in the topic, we hope to maximize their sense of responsibility for their learning and increase their motivation. Accordingly, Kálmán and Gutierrez Eugenio (2015) stated that students' success in learning English can be influenced by their interest in the topic. Wilson (2012) underlined the crucial importance of this step in promoting students' listening motivation in foreign language instruction (p. 40).

Furthermore, still with regard to the preservation of the validity and reliability of this research in general, the observation in particular, the audio and audiovisual recording of the students during the experiment have been kept aside. The aim is to prevent students from being overzealous or uncomfortable in front of a camera in order to keep their behaviour as natural as possible and prevent observation from becoming, as noted earlier, "counterproductive" (Wragg, 2011).Note that this is not just limited to students; it can even infect the researcher's behaviour and influence their reactions and decisions.

Instead, the teacher will rely on *written accounts*; one of the four recording methods designed by Wragg (2011)for classroom observation including video cassette, sound cassette

and transcripts. This method, compared to the other three, saves time, ensures an immediate and fresh report since the data are available to the researcher even at the time of observation (Wragg, 2011, p. 16).The written accounts in question are mainly based on the *observation grid* which will be described in detail in the following section.

4.4.4.2.1. Description of the Observation Grid

One of the most significant stations of empirical research is to design the dimensions that allow the researcher to control and test the putative hypothesis and reach reliable results. As a reminder, the aim of this study is to ascertain whether the introduction of the listening-based instruction will have any discernible effects on students' ability to speak EFL. Autonomy and effectiveness of students' oral production have a special consideration in this research. On the basis of this consideration the indicators of the observation are marked out. So, let's first show briefly the relationship between these two dimensions on the basis of previous research findings and the trends of this research, before delimiting the indicators of the observation grid.

As shown in previous chapters, the shift to a student-centred methodology has assigned a new definition of the importance of students' contribution to their learning. Their passive role has gone out of fashion and the demands of active actors in the teaching and learning processes have become the focus of the new methodology. Effectiveness was one of those claims which garnered a lot of discussion since then.

Generally speaking, an effective FL speaker is the one who possesses the power to interact genuinely, as to understand what is being said, and make the interlocutor/s understand/s what they say. Thornbury (2013) believes that language learning arises from learning communication; in other words, the development of conversational skills precedes the development of language itself (p. 105). He relates speaking effectiveness to students'

development of "conversational competence" that is related to the development and mastery of some competencies divided into four categories (the same on which speaking assessment is based): grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation, and interactive communication (pp. 127-129).

Autonomy, as its literal definition indicates, falls under the student's ability to be independent from others (peers and the teacher) in controlling and monitoring their thinking; more precisely, students become self-authorship of their beliefs, values and ways of thinking. Simply put, autonomy is reached when the students assume responsibility for their learning (Chang, 2007).

And as long as listening autonomy is concerned, Wilson (2012) related it to motivation on the basis that a language listener becomes a better listener when motivated. Further, he advanced some characteristics of what he believes a good listener should possess. These include: the skill to predict the meaning of the whole text (instead to worry about unknown words), the ability to be active participators in learning (rather than passive receivers), and the ability to be autonomous in managing what they hear (p. 41).Thus, autonomy, in this respect, is the result of the development of the listening skill.

Moreover, and as long as foreign language speaking is concerned, Thornbury related autonomy to automaticity of the skill under hand. He wrote:

> … autonomy is the capacity to self-regulate performance as a consequence of gaining control over skills that were formerly other-regulated. Moreover, the self-confidence gained in achieving autonomy, however fleeting, can be a powerful incentive for taking further risks in this direction. (2013, p. 90)

This definition implies that autonomy occurs when learners reach automaticity in understanding and producing the foreign language. This automaticity can only be attained

when the learners gain mastery of the foreign language skills, which cannot be reached without the assistance of the *others*: mainly the teacher (and peers in certain cases). And since effectiveness is a term used to cover the mastery of the language four skills, then it seems obvious that Thornbury's definition here advances autonomy and effectiveness as two elements of the same entity which implies that advance in language effectiveness leads without doubt to the development of autonomy.

Differently put, the learners need first to reach a sufficient amount of knowledge which makes them conversationally competent (Thornbury, 2013)to become autonomous and self-reliant in FL learning. Further, on the basis of this vision, the same scholar claims that classroom speaking activities that involve minimum assistance (from the teacher), encourage students to take risks, and boost their self-confidence are quite helpful in preparing those students for real-world language use (p. 90). According to this same definition, the kind of self-confidence which results from reaching autonomy provides sufficient support for the learner to dare what is more difficult regarding FL learning and use.

Similarly, as claimed by Nation and Macalister (2010), autonomy proffers the learners the capability to know "how to learn a language and how to monitor and be aware of their learning, so that they can become effective and independent language learners" (as cited in Nosratinia & Zaker, 2013).Fluency is another term that appears whenever efficiency and autonomy are mentioned. As argued by Nation and Newton (2009), fluency is typically measured according "speed of access or production and by the number of hesitations" (p. 152). Thus, it is clear that it fits what speaking effectiveness stands for. However, fluency is believed only to occur when the learners reach the level to control the language system and use a variety of "efficient, well-connected, and well-practised paths" of what they are learning (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 157). In simple words, autonomy fosters effectiveness.

Hence, autonomy and effectiveness seem to be quite related to each other. This view was supported by many researchers who believe in the correlation between autonomy and effectiveness in learning in general (language learning in special).Put differently, the development of the language effectiveness undoubtedly involves the development of autonomy which by its turn boosts the advance of students' effectiveness (Thornbury, 2013; Wilson, 2012; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2013).

Besides, autonomy development in FL and SL acquisition is tightly related to critical thinking development (CT). Students must go beyond "absorbing knowledge and learn to heighten skills to judge information, evaluate alternative evidence, and argue with tenable reasons" (Nostartinia & Zaker, 2013, p. 101). Kabilan (2000) argues that since the communicative approach to language teaching mainly emphasizes the use of language as a communication tool, then students cannot become proficient in a language without acquiring the ability to think creatively and critically when using that language (cited in Nosratinia & Zaker, 2013). According to Wilson (2012), training students to become *strategic* about listening is one of the most important things that teachers can do to foster students' competence skill (p. 34).This is the foundation of our belief that listening-based instruction can help students think critically so they can start to consider their learning process in general and their oral production (speaking) in particular.

Based on what came before, taking into account how intertwined autonomy and effectiveness are, and adopting Thornbury's perspective as previously explained, the observation of students' speaking performances will be based on five factors. These include grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation, interactive communication, and self-correction (see Figure7).

The four first criteria are taken from the Cambridge Certificate in English Language Speaking Skill Test (CELS Test) as denoted by Thornbury (2013, pp. 126-129). The last is inspired from the majority of the literature that deals with listening and speaking in FL settings, particularly Wilson (2012), Nation and Newton (2009) and Thornbury (2013). In all, these five criteria are the indicators of the observation grid on the basis of which the achievements of the twenty participants are observed in each session.

Figure 7

The Indicators of the Observation Grid

Note. This figure displays the indicators of the observation grid on the basis of which students' speaking skill is evaluated in this research.

As to the grading scale, each indicator ranged from 0 to 4. In sum, the researcher collects 26 observation grids with an assessment score for each of the twenty participants in the listening-free and the listening-based stages. The illustration of the observation grid is presented in the Table 5 (see section 4.4.4.2.3).

Apart from this, and for organizational purposes, a table was designed to summarize the process of each lesson, including the general and specific objectives, the duration, the

used authentic video extract(s), and the selected activities according to a three-phased model: pre-listening, listening and speaking phases (see Section 4.5.5).

Worth to mention is that we aim to put more emphasis on the content (meaning) of what students are saying instead of how they say it (form). In other words, we tend to focus on fluency rather than accuracy or pronunciation (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 152-157; Thornbury, 2013, pp. 91-112; Wilson, 2012 p. 29). This is because, fostering these two latter leads the teacher to vainly venture into an endless process of correcting mistakes which can prevent students from experiencing autonomy and inhibit fluency by forcing their attention on accuracy. This is exactly what stands behind the tendency to reduce our interventions to a minimum of afterwards corrections to give students the opportunity to start relying on themselves and practicing self-correction.

4.4.4.2.2. Indicators for the Observation Grid

As mentioned earlier, the indicators of the observation, in the present study, are based on the famous Cambridge CELS Test of speaking (Certificate in English Language Speaking Skills), which adopts the three standard divisions outlined by the Common European Framework (CEF): A (basic), B (interdependent), and C (proficient). Originally this test engages two candidates and involves three types of interaction: (1) an individual speech; (2) a dialogue (that the candidate prepares with another candidate beforehand); and (3) a three-way discussion (involving both candidates and the interlocutor), as explained by Thornbury (2013, p. 127). A more detailed description of the CEF framework is provided earlier in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.8).

Implemented in the present research, the three types of interaction are almost the same. The only difference is that instead of assessing the speaking skill of two interlocutors

(in the dialogue and the three-way discussion), the number is sometimes extracted to three or four students (sometimes group discussion) depending on the type of the activities carried out.

Another difference is that the researcher does not take part in the dialogue or the conversation, but keeps herself to observation and evaluation. One reason is the will to adopt learner-centred teaching and allow more space for students to practice speaking, interact with their classmates, and adopt self-correction, particularly in the speaking phase. The other reason stems from the researcher's need to concentrate on each participant's speaking performance and provide an adequate evaluation, which requires her to act as a passive observer. In all, the five-observation grid' indicators will be described in the following section.

4.4.4.2.2.1 Grammar and Vocabulary

Since a language is made up of words that are necessarily governed by a system of rules, then it is quite obvious to find vocabulary and grammar at the top of the items in which students should be tested. In this study, students are evaluated in terms of their capacity in using and ranging the appropriate vocabulary (words and chunks) in what fits the proposed topic of discussion. This may include; for example, how well the language being used does fit into the formal and informal speech varieties. Add to that, students do not have to know all the English words by heart to be able to communicate fluently and effectively. Knowledge of the high-frequency English words would stand the students in 'good stead' (Thornbury, 2013, pp. 34-36).

The high frequency words include: the common question forming words (e.g., what, where and when), the pronouns, all the modal auxiliary verbs (e.g., would, will, can and might), demonstrative pronouns and common deictic devices (e.g., this, here, then and now), the common prepositions (e.g., on, near, from and between), spoken discourse markers (e.g.,

well, oh, right, so and now), common backchannel expressions (e.g., really, how, what, how awful! and How wonderful!), common sequencing and linking words (e.g., first, then, next, and, or), common ways of adding emphasis (e.g., really, very, just and so), common ways of hedging (as in reducing assertiveness through the use of actually, quiet, rather, sort (of), etc.); the use of all-purpose words (e.g., thing, things, place, time, way, make and do), in addition to the chunks associated with those high-frequency words.

It is important to precise that what is meant by grammar, in the present work, is the type of spoken grammar appropriate for natural speech (basically that which favours rapid, real-time speech production) as opposed to the written grammar. An example of this is to favour clause-length units which characterize speaking (i.e., head-body-tail) than sentence-length ones which rather fit writing (Thornbury, 2013, pp. 33-34). Other important grammatical features include the knowledge and ability to use the past simple, in addition to the continuous and perfect aspect forms of verbs to sequence narratives. Other features comprise the need to have enough knowledge about the use of: the most frequently occurring modal and semi-modal verbs (i.e., can, will, would, have to, going to, used to), the ability to formulate questions especially yes/no questions and wh-questions, knowledge of some basic conjunctions to match together clausal and non-clausal units, and the manipulation of one or two all-purpose quoting expressions (e.g., *he said … and then I said*).

4.4.4.2.2.2 Pronunciation

In terms of pronunciation, students are evaluated according to their ability to produce comprehensible utterances in terms of the production of individual sounds, the appropriate linking of words, and the use of stress and intonation to convey the intended meaning, as precised by Thornbury (2013, p. 37). Students L1 accent is acceptable in some way if communication is not obstructed. The intelligibility of the message is favoured rather than the precision of the phonological aspect.

However, a special attention is paid to rhythm and intonation regarding the great importance they play in the intelligibility of the spoken message. Intonation, for instance, serves both to separate the flow of speech into blocks of information (called tone units), and to mark the information within these units as significant (Thornbury, 2013, p. 24). A pitch rise denotes new information or some kind of continuation (when it occurs at the end of the last word accented by a pitch unit), however, a pitch fall indicates the end.

Moreover, the correct placement of stress in a spoken utterance is also of considerable importance. Students should know how to manipulate the type of constructive stress to differentiate, for example, (1) the utterance 'she is Ahmed's MOTHER' with emphasis on the word *mother* to precise the relationship between Ahmed and this person being his mother, not his aunt; from the statement (2) 'she is AHMED's mother' to designate this woman as *Ahmed's* mother not Peter's for instance. Students must be aware of these peculiarities in order to be able to understand and be understandable in English.

4.4.4.2.2.3 Discourse Management

As far as one-way communication is concerned, students are judged on their ability to convey information and express opinions in a cohesive and connected speech. Additionally, students are assessed on their ability to maintain their stamina to produce long, coherent sentences using an appropriate range of language resources (Thornbury, 2013).

4.4.4.2.2.4 Interactive Communication

Unlike one-way communication, interactive communication requires students to be able to initiate speech and respond appropriately and at the required speed and rhythm. Their ability to use functional language and strategies to maintain or repair interaction are on probation. Thornbury (2013) listed a range of descriptors for spoken interaction including: turn-taking

skills; communication strategies; spontaneity; asking for clarification, information exchange; and politeness strategies.

4.4.4.2.2.5 Self-Correction

What is meant by self-correction here is students' ability to proceed over correcting their mistakes by themselves. A deft hint of the teacher is sufficient to activate their process of *repair* (see Section 2.7) to adjust their oral production according to the rules and systems of the foreign language. Self-correction is tightly connected to students' autonomy which is considered one facet of success in language learning. In this context, Davies and Pearse (2000) associated the degree of success in EFL speaking to the development of learners' autonomy. They believe that the teacher is supposed to help students to learn without his/her help since they are sooner or later destined to pass up the teacher's help as long as they sink in learning and using the language outside the classroom (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 107).

However self-correction, or repair, functions only with mistakes not with errors; the latter need serious consideration of the rules and absolutely necessitate the help of the teacher (or peers). Mistakes, as seen by Thornbury (2013) stand for "learners' momentary failure to apply what they already know" due to the needs of immediate interaction in contrast to errors which "represent a gap in the speaker's knowledge of the system" which absolutely needs the teacher's intervention to resolve the anomaly (p. 92).

Similarly, to this view, Davies and Pearse (2000, p. 112) defined mistakes as incorrect forms or uses that occur in spite of the learner knowing the appropriate form or use; whereas errors are incorrect form or uses which occur as a result of learners' ignorance of the appropriate form or use. They added to these two distinctions the *slips* which they believe of little or no significance since they are natural tongue phenomenon quite close to native speakers' tongue slips. Thornbury believes that self-correction, even if prompted by the

teacher, is one step nearer self-regulation which is the ultimate goal of full autonomy(2013, pp. 92-93).According to this view the term *repair* is favoured to *correction* since the first is believed less inhibiting and facilitative whereas the second is seen as judgmental.

However, it is worth to remember that the students' speaking skill in the present investigation is meant to be evaluated mainly according to the intelligibility which is, as precised earlier in this section, more concerned by the content than the form. In terms of correction, the researcher reserves the right intervene only when an error or a blockage seems to persist for a considerable amount of time, whether or not the student has asked for help.

4.4.4.2.3. The Observation Rating Scale

As a common method of data collection, the rating scale is used in the present research to assign a value to students' speaking performance in terms of the five indicators stated above. More precisely, a numerical rating scale is used to give a quantitative symbolization to the different indicators and facilitate the evaluation of the students' speaking skill.

As shown in the observation grid bellow (see Table 5), the scale for each indicator ranges from 0 to 4 according to the degree of performance; from less performing to better performing. We basically drew on Harris and McCann's *Band Scale* (1994) stated in Chapter 2, but with modifications that better suit the current research objectives (see Section 2.8). In view of that, each student is assigned a number according to this scale to assess his/her ability in the five mentioned indicators. The sum of these numbers represents the student's speaking performance in one session. The same operation is undertaken in all sessions of the pre-experimental and experimental phases. Table 5 above represents an excerpt of the Observation grid of the present research:

Table 5

Excerpt of the Observation Grid Table

STAGE:	Speaking skill																								SESSION .....
Indicators & scale	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive communication					Self-Correction					Grade /20
Students	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1																										
S2																										
S3																										

Note. This is an extract from a table designed by the author to summarize the twenty participants' achievements in each session according to the five indicators. The scale ranges from 0 to 4 for each indicator. Each horizontal line represents a student denoted by S followed by a number which is kept the same, and in the same order, along the present study. The last column on the extreme right is reserved for the final score which results from the summation of the five marks acquired in each indicator. Apart from the heading, the complete table includes twenty lines each representing a student from the paired sample.

As demonstrated in Table 5 above, each indicator column is divided into five subdivisions ranging from 0 to 4. The complete form of the table encompasses twenty lines, each reserved for a student who is referred to by *S* followed by a representative number. The names of the students are not revealed as they are considered irrelevant to the procedure and the results of the research. Instead, the number that symbolizes a given student remains the

same throughout the experiment. The rating scale of this investigation is summarized as follows:

0: Null performance in grammar and vocabulary; discourse management; pronunciation or interactive communication and self-correction.

1: Low performance in grammar and vocabulary; discourse management; pronunciation or interactive communication and self-correction.

2: Fair performance in grammar and vocabulary; discourse management; pronunciation or interactive communication and self-correction.

3: High performance in grammar and vocabulary; discourse management; pronunciation or interactive communication and self-correction.

4: Very high performance in grammar and vocabulary; discourse management; pronunciation or interactive communication and self-correction.

By the end of each session, the student is assigned a mark which represents his/her speaking achievement. By the end of each stage, participant will have a global mark which results from the summation of all the marks divided by the number of the sessions (13). We will go over all the calculations in more detail (see section 4.6. and Chapter 6).

4.5. Experiment Implementation

This section summarizes how the researcher applied all of her knowledge and experience in carrying out the present study. Differently put, the way this research is implemented and conducted in the field reflects the researcher's vision down to the smallest detail. This includes a restatement of the aim, duration and content of the experiment in addition to materials selection and how the lessons were planned.

4.5.1. Experiment Aim

As stated earlier, the aim of the present research is to examine the relationship between introducing a listening-based instruction, in the Oral-expression course, and the development of EFL speaking skills of second-year students of the English Department, Batna2 University. In other words, we aim to explore the probability of the existence of an impact of students' exposure to structured listening (based on authentic excerpts) on the development of the participants EFL oral skills mainly in terms of autonomy and fluency. The focus is on students' ability to express themselves in English as effectively (i.e., fluency) and autonomously as possible (managing their speech and correcting their mistakes by themselves). Their reactions and achievements are supposed to determine whether to maintain or deny the hypothesis of this research. In more straightforward terms, the results of the present experiment will demonstrate if ever the introduction of listening-based instruction can improve students' EFL speaking skills.

However, throughout the present investigation, the aim is to introduce listening only as a *drip-feed* process rather than a flood (Wilson, 2012, p. 34), and be subtle when implementing listening strategies, especially for those learners who do not like being told how to learn. The goal is not to overwhelm learners with teaching listening, but rather to help them think through the strategies they are already using and to help them discover new ones that will shorten the path to EFL understanding and production as efficiently as possible.

Moreover, drawing on the principle that the oral-expression course, as its name suggests, aims to provide a space for students to express themselves in English and practice their conversational competence, it would obviously not be appropriate to over-teach listening at the expense of EFL interaction and production in the experimental stage. In layman's terms, the aim is to keep the interactional nature of the course and allow students enough time

to practice their speaking, but after a relatively short structured listening; most of the time not salient.

4.5.2. Experiment Duration

The experience extended, practically, for seven months; nine, if we take into consideration the sessions missed due to students' absences (especially in the first stage) or other external reasons, to name but the most significant: electricity cuts and certain political events (Hirak). The present study was completed over the course of twenty-eight weeks. Thirteen sessions delineated each of the listening-free (pre-experimental) and listening-based stage (experimental), in addition to the first and last sessions held respectively for the first-contact and the questionnaires assignment. With the exception of the ninth topic, that took two full sessions (9th and 10th), each topic lasted one session. Each session was limited to one and a half hour, in keeping with the typical length of the oral expression course at Batna 2 University for second-year English levels.

4.5.3. Experiment Content

As a reminder, it is important to refer again to the fact that in this study, the members of the control and experimental groups are, in fact, the same. As mentioned previously, we aim to provide reliable answers to the current problem, after having compared the achievements of the paired-sample students in the pre- and experimental stages (see Section 4.4.2.3).

Indeed, we believe that comparing the results of the same students before and after exposure to the targeted listening instruction will provide more reliable results than if we work on two different groups. On the one hand, this can be quite helpful in saving time and efforts. Obviously, the duration of the experiment would have been longer and more demanding with two different groups; the collection of students testifies to this. On the other

hand, working with a single group gave the researcher and the students enough time to get to know one another and build a strong rapport. Students are generally more cooperative with teachers they already know, especially those with whom they have established a good relationship.

Moreover, this was very constructive for the researcher in terms of observation and evaluation. Spending a relatively long time (about nine months) with the same group provides the researcher with the ability to refine her observation and made it more apposite. This is because it is easier to evaluate a student you have known for a relatively long time than one you have known for a while. Hence, as the researcher grew more attuned to even the slightest shift in the participants' behaviour, the evaluation process became more systematic; the second stage in particular.

The students were prompted to brainstorm a list of the topics they would like to cover in the upcoming classes at the very beginning of the experiment, during the first-contact session, as well as the names of some well-known movies from which some excerpts were chosen as instructional tools for the oral-expression course. The objective is to get students to share responsibility for their learning and increase their motivation by switching their role from passive receivers to active collaborators with the teacher. The goal is to increase student engagement in the class as a first step toward achieving the desired speaking autonomy.

In the second session, after the questionnaire collection, the students were given a list of the subjects planned to be covered in the listening-free and listening-based stages. The aim is to keep them informed and knowledgeable of at least the topics. Also, this is supposed to feed the inquisitive side of the more curious ones and, probably, raise their motivation and interest towards the course in general. Similarly, the same document served as a blueprint for the researcher. In sum, this list was made up of twelve topics (with the 9^{th} and the 10^{th} lessons

dealing with the same topic). However, although this list, and that of the videos, was initially designed based on students' suggestions, they have been adapted to the current research goals and restrictions of what can and cannot be used in the classroom.

Besides, before each listening-based session, students were encouraged to watch the full video content planned for the coming session outside the classroom as a pre-activity. The main goal of this is to familiarize students with the material and get them in the habit of watching in English so they can lessen any anxiety that might naturally develop due to the language's difficulty or a lack of understanding of the events. Additionally, it is meant to help the teacher avoid wasting time while introducing the movie and its plot. As well, this is meant to allow the participants enough time to focus on listening strategies and enough space to practice their speaking and complete the various tasks.

In addition, a brochure was distributed during the second session to all participants as a general guide for the oral expression course. Dubbed "General Handout", this extra document aims to provide students with useful knowledge necessary for the development of speech and conversation skills. It includes some generalities about speaking and what needs an EFL learner to become a competent speaker including the sociocultural knowledge, speech acts, register, discourse, spoken grammar, vocabulary and phonology. The students were asked to examine the document at home and prepare questions for the next session, in case they failed to understand something. This document proved to be supportive for students to remedy their shortcomings throughout the experiment.

Apart from the two first sessions, twenty-six sessions were divided equally between the pre-experimental and experimental phases with no listening instruction to be assigned to the first as the main differential point. In the first stage, the courses evolution was fairly typical. After introducing the topic, the instructor had the class watch some relevant video

extracts (once) before allowing for a lengthy discussion on the topic at hand. More precisely, no particular intention was given to the question of listening-speaking. The students were left on their own to harness their abilities to notice, retrieve, and memorize information that would likely help them develop their conversational skill. No deliberate assistance was provided by the teacher for the development of their listening skills. At best, only the luckiest or keenest will be able to tap into their previous reserves and use their previously acquired (even simple) listening strategies to notice, if possible, the elements that may help them understand the content of the video excerpts and discuss the related topic.

In contrast, the oral-expression sessions designed for the experimental stage were divided into three parts: the first, was basically a warm-up; the second, was reserved for the listening-based instruction; and the third, deduced to students' practice of their English through a set of carefully designed tasks using former knowledge and knowledge acquired from the short listening instruction.

To allow students to prepare for the lesson by learning some relevant vocabulary, expressions, and other useful information, a handout containing the key information is distributed one week in advance; this is a crucial time-saving measure. The activity sheet is however distributed in the relevant session to ensure spontaneous reactions from the students and, thus, the reliability of the observation.

The division of the three phases of the experimental stage is based primarily on the goals and objectives of this research. As stated earlier, the aim is to provide assistance by introducing listening-based instruction through authentic YouTube video extracts to help the participants develop their listening strategies and develop conversational skills. In addition, training students to become *strategic* about listening, as stated by Wilson (2012), is supposed

to help them gain advantage in terms of EFL speaking and self-regulation. This latter is responsible for achieving the estimated speaking effectiveness and autonomy.

Moreover, teaching active listening, at variance of passive listening (hearing), essentially involves training students "to listen with purpose" (Palmer, 2014, p. 62). In layman's terms, students must learn to differentiate between *to listen* and *listen for*. In the listening phase of each experimental stage session, the researcher concentrated on a special kind of knowledge intended to aid students in broadening their vocabulary, learning the language system, and acquiring knowledge about how the language actually works and how natives use it on a daily basis to interact and express their needs.

In this respect, Wilson related qualifying an EFL or ESL classroom as to be *good* to the investigation of authentic English (2012, p. 32). Graded material which is designed for teaching purposes is not quite useful since it presents a kind of simplified and denatured English which prevents students, even for the best ones, from reaching the level of using English genuinely and effectively. The type of English meant here is the one spoken on the street, at meeting or on TV which requires the student to have a large amount of knowledge "to cope with features of authentic language such as patterns of discourse, fillers, redundancies, false starts, etc."(Wilson, 2012, p. 32). This issue was extensively discussed in the Chapter 3.

Moreover, activities have received a great attention in this work. Considered as teaching-learning regulators in the listening phase, they allowed the teacher to have an idea of the degree of advancement students had achieved regarding the session objectives. It also afforded those latter the opportunity to check their learning, practice the knowledge they acquired, and anchor it for further use. In the speaking phase, the activities were the observation pillars, on the basis of which the observer judged the participants' reactions and

performances. The main goal of the warm-up activities, also known as pre-listening activities, was to equip students with the vocabulary and knowledge they need to successfully complete the following stages.

Thus, the activities' selection and implementation were cautiously approached to conform to the underlined objectives for each session and allow for reliable observation. In other words, the suitability of the activity with the students' level of proficiency, its appropriateness with the targeted objectives, the time required for its achievement, its coherence with the topic and the content of videos extracts, how better it can be implemented (individual, pair or group work), and how effective it can be in demonstrating the abilities of the participants, all were taken into consideration. Games, role-playing, talks (Sparklines, In Ress Media), and discussions were the most solicited among the wide range of speaking activities. This chapter goes on to provide more information (see Section 4.5.7).

Furthermore, the conventional role of the researcher as a teacher in the experimental stage was deliberately limited. Except for the warm-up and the listening phases, which required the researchers' active omnipresence to explain, illustrate and demonstrate important elements; her role was restricted to a passive observer in the speaking phase. This is quite obvious given the third phase's nature and goal, which suggests that the students apply their knowledge and hone their public speaking abilities.

Generally speaking, we made sure that the experience was as positive as possible for both us and the research study participants. For this reason, we made a conscious effort to maintain a pleasant atmosphere throughout the experiment in order to foster friendly relationships with the participants and thereby facilitate the teaching-learning process, particularly the one related to listening. From the choice of subjects to the slightest activity, the attitudes of the students were closely monitored. Their opinions and preferences were

seriously considered to make them feel like partners in the teaching-learning process. Additionally, there was an effort to persuade them to stick with the course and avoid absences that might impede the successful completion of the current study.

Afterwards, and to make sure she did not miss anything, the researcher recorded her observations on the participants' behavioural and linguistic changes, which she later used to analyse the upshots of the current study. She compared the students' results in the listening-free and listening-based stages to check whether there is a relationship between the implementation of the listening-based instruction and the improvement of students' English language speaking skill.

4.5.4. The Experiment Instruments

As what concerns the present investigation, the researcher relied on observation as the main instrument to collect data and assess students' achievements in EFL speaking proficiency. More precisely, it was used to probe the change in students' EFL speaking skill before and after the introduction of the meant listening-based instruction in the oral expression course. For this, she relied on the assessment of students' achievements according to the five indicators described earlier (see Section 4.4.4.2.2). As a reminder, the indicators in question revolve around the five aspects, including spoken grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation, speech management, interactive communication, and self-correction.

4.5.4.1. Material Selection

Three sources of authentic recorded listening materials are generally considered reliable in pedagogical settings: the net, radio and television. (See section 3.2.4). However, it seems that the net is ahead of the other two materials on the basis of two main reasons: its content is archived rather than schedule-based, making it accessible anytime and anywhere; and it is ever-expanding (Wilson, 2012, p. 119). The current great openness to the net

provides teachers and researchers with an unlimited variety of videos, films, documentaries and shows to be used in educational contexts.

Therefore, one can think, a priori, that the task is easy or even trivial for a researcher to find what they are looking for in the enormous amount of available documentation. This is both true and false. It is true that the abundant availability of audiovisual documents makes it easier for researchers to use them as a pedagogical material, at least with regard to the variety of choices. The pressure to select the most appropriate material from the vast amount of data available can instead be increased by that same abundance, which will make the task even more challenging.

With respect to the current work, and in an attempt to narrow down the choices based on what best serves the goals and trends of this research, video extracts have been accurately selected from the wide variety of materials to pursue the experience. They have all been derived from the famous search engine: YouTube. In the first place, we focused on feature films, in addition to other types, to respond to students' preferences, noticed through the analysis of the questionnaires. This is probably a result of them being very entertaining and funny. Moreover, the appropriate use of films in the English language classroom may assist students in developing the four key skills, gaining self-confidence in expressing themselves in English in front of an audience and develop their presentation skills (Eken, 2003).

Furthermore, films are chosen because of their availability and accessibility. In addition to their generous presence on the net (or simply compacted in CD), films are accessible to all, the teacher and students included. No matter where we are, we can watch a film at our leisure. This availability can be beneficial in EFL instructional settings. For instance, as an extra activity or homework, the teacher may ask the students to watch a film, or an excerpt of it, to hone their pronunciation and acquire new vocabulary. In this study, this

technique was adopted to prepare students for the session and enable them enough time to explore the video extract content and cope with the difficult language. On occasion, students were invited to watch the whole film at home, without particular pedagogical follow-up.

Another reason why we emphasized films is that they are generally available in different languages. The number of films whose original language is English (American or British) in addition to those translated, offers EFL/ESL teachers everywhere a wide range of choices to introduce into their language classrooms. Alike, students with low proficiency levels can watch a translated version first in the language they master, then move on to the original one so that they may concentrate on more serious issues related to the English language (linguistic, phonological, and sociocultural). For the current researcher, she invited students with significant learning disabilities to watch the chosen video excerpts with subscriptions or in the Arabic or French versions beforehand to prepare for the session, or afterwards as extra activity.

Apart from the technical convenience, films are also useful for their authenticity. In original-version films, the language is presented in a context very close to reality, and is not necessarily intended for pedagogical endings. English presented in that way, offers the perfect raw material for language teachers who are interested by showing their students the real, every-day English; which concords with our interest in the following investigation.

However, complaints about the use of spontaneous everyday English stem from the possibility that it may be too challenging and out of reach for language learners. This explains the tendency towards using extracts from soap operas or films in teaching speaking than, for instance, TV talk shows and reality shows. According to Thornbury, some scriptwriters are genius in simulating the characteristics of natural speech and thus provide language students with an excellent, very close model of how natives use their language

everyday (2013, p. 46). This was another reason behind the use of films as a pedagogical instrument in this study.

Besides films, the researcher opted for YouTube videos of some EFL teaching lessons. One can believe that these materials do not adhere to current research objectives since they do not provide the required authentic language. However, the selected lessons targeted the type of natural English spoken by native speakers. Those lessons emphasise the language features which help the acquisition of authentic English language including idioms, chunks, proverbs, and others. Thus, the authenticity is preserved and the objectives of this research are not threatened.

The bottom line is that both films and EFL lessons provide a variety of usage options which entails a wide range of activities such as: vision on, sound off; vision off, sound on; pause and predict; watch and describe; act and watch; watch and act; say who said it; and complete the story (Wilson, 2012, pp. 120–122).For instance, occasionally, the instructor turned off the sound to encourage students to focus on the extract's visual elements or guess the events as a warm-up activity. Other times, the video vision-off was played to encourage the participants to concentrate on how the language is uttered without relying on the visual context. Also, the rewind button was, quite useful for the researcher to repeat the desired piece as much as she needed until the goal was achieved. In all, whenever there was a good Internet connection, the videos were used online. If not, the researcher used downloaded copies that she edited and cut into brief excerpts using some online tools to make their use easier while avoiding offensive or lengthy scenes.

Therefore, we intend, through this experience, to steer students towards a more serious consideration of their listening to improve their ability to communicate in English using carefully selected YouTube video excerpts as teaching aids to support the listening instruction

and achieve both short-term and long-term goals. Respectively, while the former targets the students' motivation towards the oral expression course and the various speaking activities; the latter are intended to support their listening and speaking skills to reach the level of English effective, autonomous communicators. The researcher's propensity to get students interested in watching English audiovisual production, primarily films, not just for entertainment but as a strategy to improve their EFL speaking and listening abilities both inside and outside the academia boundaries, is a secondary goal that is still very important.

At last, it is worth mentioning that, in the absence of a language laboratory, the researcher was obliged to use her laptop, two strong speakers, and her data projector to support the implementation of those tools. The selected video extracts to each session, will be presented in the related 'planning table'. Precisions of the source and the duration of each extract will be supplied in the column 'material' of each table (see Section 4.5.7).

4.5.5. Planning the Experimental Sessions

Discussing the importance of planning in scientific research may be unnecessary or even trivial. Likewise, planning experimental lessons is not optional; it is rather a crucial step if goals are to be achieved. The type of planning meant here covers short-term planning as opposed to long-term planning. As defined by Davies and Pearse (2000, pp. 117-119), short-term planning may involve work plans covering a week's teaching as well as individual lesson plans, whereas long-term planning may be prepared by a school or educational authority and cover a relatively long period of instruction. A syllabus that constitutes the essential guide for the course of a whole semester or a year is an example of the latter.

Thus, lesson planning is unanimously considered an essential step in preparing for any teaching situation by allowing teachers to decide exactly what they plan to do (in terms of the objectives and the activities) and how they intend to proceed. In the absence of a well-

structured plan, teachers may find themselves going mechanically through the course book or trying to improvise entire lessons (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 120). Improvisation, in that way, seems to be the antonym of planning although, according to the same authors, some improvisation and flexibility are believed favourable even in the best planned lessons.

When planning a lesson, it is crucial to take into account certain conditions. To allow this to flow comfortably, it should be broken down into steps and transitions each requiring different behaviour from the teacher, a different level of effort from the students and changes in pace (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 122).Accordingly, the age, abilities and interests of students together with the lesson's objectives, duration and even the time of the day when the lesson is scheduled are all important elements to consider while planning. Newman (2013)limited effective lesson planning to the efficiency of three lesson components: objectives, activities and measurement tasks. According to this view, it is important for teachers to define clear specific objectives as a basis for students' learning evaluation; plan engaging activities to be able to achieve desired objectives; and design adequate tasks aimed to assess students' performance in meaningful real-life situations.

Correspondingly, Davies and Pearse, drawing on a typical lesson plan they suggested, listed five major aspects to keep in mind when planning a foreign language lesson(2000, p. 122).First, there is the clear delimitation of the lesson's stages and the smooth transition from one stage to the following one. The second covers the need for a unifying theme which runs through all the suggested activities. The third aspect is meant by the necessity to relate the activities, materials and procedures to the objectives of the lesson. The fourth consideration is about fostering fluency over accuracy. The last aspect deals with the importance of considering the learning conditions and students' interests. All of these aspects have been seriously considered when planning the lessons of the current experience.

Similarly, Ur (1984)invited teachers to consider specific measures while designing tasks for the foreign language lesson. These include planning tasks based on real-life situations; considering students difficulties and manage procedures of recovery; paying attention to some details related to the teaching-learning process including the size and arrangement of the classroom, the number of students and the technical equipment used (e.g., screen projector, computer, DVD player, etc.); in addition to the way teachers project to pedagogically proceed to achieve the traced objectives (Ur, 1984, p. 2).

So, to avoid vain improvisation or loss of control and as well-said scientific studies recommended, the present researcher designed clear and structured short-term planning for each of the lessons with respect to all of the points mentioned above. In this, she divided the lessons into two series labelled: listening-free and listening-based lessons which relate respectively to the pre-experimental and experimental stages.

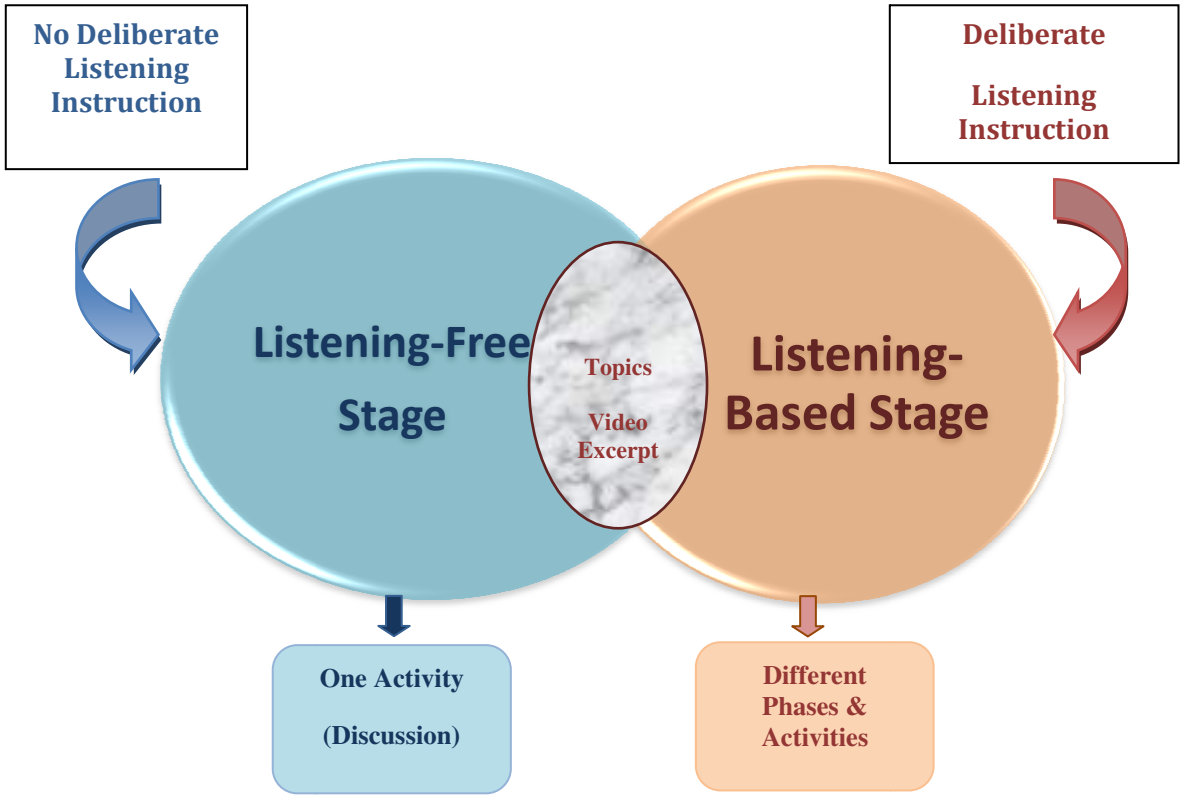
The first stage covered twelve lessons spread over thirteen sessions and followed a typical oral expression instruction model. It was characterized by lightly assisted listening instruction, from which its appellation *listening-free* is derived, and prioritized open discussions and individual oral presentations. Besides, the basic aspect of the information presented in this set of lessons, compared to the introduction of more structured listening and various activities in the second phase lessons, is believed to witness any change in the EFL listening and speaking skills of the sample during and after the treatment. For students in the listening-free stage, prior knowledge and independent work were their unique resets (resources of knowledge).

Conversely, the second series of lessons, although they treated the same topics as their antagonists and where the same short video excerpts were used (however, only as a simple watching sequence), emphasised teaching listening before students could practice their

speaking. Each session was demarked by a given topic. Students were exposed to a short excerpt followed by a set of activities aiming to develop listening performances, which are supposed to lead, whether immediately or in the long run, to the development of their speaking skills. The following diagram (Figure8) illustrates the similarities and differences between the stages of the experiment.

Figure 8

The Listening-Free and Listening-Based Stages of the Experiment



Note. The diagram above summarizes the two stages of the present experiment. Each stage is distinguished by a colour and its main features, including the appellation, the use of the listening instruction, phases, and the activities. The circle in the middle means that the two stages share the same topics and video extracts.

It is worth noting that the same materials were used in both stages but were processed differently (see Figure 8). In the listening-free lessons, the short extracts were played just

once, but no special treatment of the content was taken into account. In the listening-based lessons, the video excerpts were carefully treated and related to adequate activities to deal with the different types of targeted knowledge. These include: listening comprehension, listening for the gist, exemplification, and practice of particular acquired knowledge, in addition to language games, to name but a few. All of this clearly came in handy when it came time to the speaking activity.

Table 6

An Excerpt of the Listening-Based Lessons Plan

<table>
<tr><th>Lesson General Objectives</th><th>Specific Objectives</th><th>Materials/ Aids</th><th>Time/ mn</th><th>Activities</th><th>Phase</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3"></td><td></td><td rowspan="3"></td><td></td><td>Pre-listening Activity</td><td>Pre-listening Phase (PLP)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2"></td><td rowspan="2"></td><td>Listening Activities</td><td rowspan="2">Listening Phase (LP)</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Speaking Activities</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">Speaking Phase (SP)</td></tr>
</table>

Note. The author adapted Davies and Pearse' (2000) lesson plan model to design the above listening-based lesson plan. Each session is divided into three main sections: the pre-listening, listening and speaking phases. From the left to the right, the table defines the lessons' general objectives, then the phases' specific objectives, materials, time allocated for each phase, the specific activities and the name of phases.

For organizational purposes, the researcher adopted the typical lesson plan of Davies and Pearse to the listening-based set of lessons (2000, pp. 121, 149) with some modifications

(mainly based on Thornbury's (2013) and Wilson's (2012) works) to better fit the trends and objectives of the research (see Table 6). The planning-table rubrics include the general objectives of the lesson; the different phases, the specific objectives related to each phase; materials/ aids; duration of each phase; and the various relative activities.

Moreover, other measures have been taken into consideration in the present research drawing on some experts' works mainly in teaching English listening and speaking (Davies & Pearse, 2000; Wilson, 2012; Thornbury, 2013; Bygate, 1987; Ur, 1984; Lynch, 2009; Nation &Newton, 2009). These mainly concern classroom management and organization. Among these measures, the will to diversify and tailor the planned activities according to the different learning styles of the students with regard to their level, capacities, and preferences was put first. Another measure is to promote student's autonomy by helping them start practicing self-correction. And, the researcher relies on pair and group work besides lockstep (a teaching-learning model where all the students do the same activity at the same time) to promote students' interaction with peers, lower stress which may result from individual participation, and create the desired enthusiastic environment. This is also a way to maintain 'activity and interactivity' which are the gist of teaching speaking according to the sociocultural view (Thornbury, 2013, p. 39); and the trends of the present research. Additionally, in order to avoid tedious lectures, the students were supposed to be kept busy at all times through a variety of activities

The bottom line is that since the nature of this research, as stated previously, is to expose students to some listening instruction to sustain their EFL speaking skills development, it is obvious that all second-stage lessons comprehend at least two main parts: a listening phase and a speaking phase. A short phase is added to these at the beginning of each lesson as a warm-up section to prepare students for the listening and speaking phases. The following subsections go into more detail about the three phases.

4.5.5.1. The Pre-Listening Phase/Warm-Up (PLP)

This is the first part of the lesson, stands for the warm-up stage, and relies heavily on the teacher's talk and explanation of particular aspects of the language to prepare the students to better manage the listening and speaking stages. In part, it involves "activating the schemata", which is a process of activating the listeners' prior knowledge to help them reduce their memories' load using activities like brainstorming, visuals, opinions, ideas and facts (Wilson, 2012, pp. 15, 64). Also, it serves to provide information and clarifications to the culminant points related to the targeted topic, or relate it to its precedent to ensure continuity and enchainment of the lessons. Accordingly, Wilson emphasized "pre-teaching vocabulary," which he believed essential to the meaning of the passage or the completion of the activity to give "students confidence as well as potentially useful information about the topic" (Wilson, 2012, p. 76). This phase is the shortest among the three and generally does not exceed 10 minutes. The researcher plays the role of a typical teacher, and no deliberate observation is meant.

4.5.5.2. The Listening Phase (LP)

This represents the second stage of the lesson. Even if it requires students to speak, whether through individual or pair-work, it is basically devoted to developing their listening skill. Mainly assisted by the teacher, the students watch the short video extract a sufficient number of times and answer the related questions, which are generally divided into two categories: those targeting the comprehension of the extract's content and those targeting a special aspect of the English language. Those latter are dubbed *awareness-raising activities* (Thornbury, 2013), where the teacher attracts the attention of students to some specific, objective-related aspects of the English language. To put it another way, they are designed to support students' growth in listening skills and hone their capacity to listen for the gist, listen to the details, and delve deeply into the language in order to become what Wilson

(2012) called *strategic* listeners. The students generally work in pairs to accomplish the required tasks.

It is worth noting that the listening portion of the lesson is intended to be smoother and shorter than its counterpart for four main reasons. The first concerns the course's nature and its overall objective to allow students enough time to speak English and practice their knowledge. Second, the listening section primarily depends on the teacher, who executes the listening procedure quite methodically; she only needs a little time to execute the listening instruction, especially since the selected extracts are generally short. The third reason relates to the teacher's intention to avoid overwhelming students with heavy listening, which necessarily requires complex cognitive processes. Finally, there is a tendency to keep students motivated and avoid disrupting their enthusiasm for the course in order to avoid tickling the resistance of reluctant and lazy students.

4.5.5.3. The Speaking Phase (SP)

In contrast to the previous phase, this one is more focused on the speaking skill, even though it must include the listening aspect because the two are inextricably linked. The students are supposed to exploit their previous knowledge and what they acquired from the lesson's previous stages to practice their English speaking. Appropriation activities and automaticity activities (according to Thornbury's (2013) categorization of activities) are scheduled to support students' gradual transition from heavy reliance on the teacher and more skilled peers to start experiencing self-reliance, a necessary step towards the intended fluency and autonomy. As defined by Thornbury, appropriation activities are intended to help students gradually take control of aspects of their speaking skill that were previously other-regulated (by the teacher or other peers) and progressively "practise control" of them until they become self-regulated (2013, p. 63).

Moreover, the nature and objectives of the appropriation phase required the teacher to be omnipresent but in total discretion. She set order and avoided the activity to turn into a mare L1 chatting or a recreation. She also worked on observing and evaluating each student's performance on the spot according to the indicators of the observation grid discussed in the previous section. Whenever needed, she provided help to students in difficulty. In other words, she only intervenes when necessary or when they explicitly ask for help, given that the aim is to promote self-regulation.

However, automaticity activities are designed to test students' self-regulated knowledge in more difficult situations, or what Thornbury (2013) refers to as "real operating conditions". The degree of autonomy attained in the targeted language aspects during the previous stages will serve as a powerful incentive to take additional risks and raise the difficulty bar in order to begin simulating real-life situations, which defines the goal of the automaticity activities (p. 90). Only after the activity had concluded could the teacher draw the participants' attention to any significant errors or mistakes that she had observed while they were performing the various tasks and activities. Their shortcomings prompted the researcher to make changes or set new goals for further sessions.

The following section will outline the course of the listening-free lessons (pre-experimental stage).

4.5.6. The Listening-Free Lessons

As explained earlier, the lessons of this stage were presented in the most typical way. In general, the teacher introduces a topic and engages students in a discussion, sharing whatever useful information they have with their classmates or working in groups to hold a conversation according to the objectives of each lesson. The summary of this stage is displayed in Table 7 bellow:

Table 7

Summary of the Listening-Free Stage Content and Procedure

Lesson	Objective	Materials	Speaking Activities
01	- Role-playing. -Advising (speech acts).	Selected extract(s)	Group work: in the form of a conversation advise somebody (e.g., a thief) to do or avoid doing something.
02	- Simulation. - Apologizing (speech acts)	Selected extract(s)	Pair work: generate a phone conversation with an agent of an online sales company, who sent you, by mistake, a product that you did not ask for. Use the adequate speech acts for apologizing.
03	Expressing Miss-understanding, astonishment and apology with 'sorry'. - Simulate a dialogue.	Selected extract(s). -The script of the dialogue.	Pair work: simulate the dialogue of the excerpt adding as much expressions and words to express misunderstanding.
04	- Hold a conversation on a given topic. - Use ellipsis.	Selected extract(s)	Pair work: Build a conversation between the cooker (first role) and Paddington (second role) about the apple pie recipe.
05	- Introduce some historical information about the slave trade and the abolitionist movement of the 80's. -Discuss a historical topic based on given information.	Selected extract(s) + the Chart of the West Indies.	Group discussion: on the basis of the information given by the teacher in the introduction and what you have seen in the excerpt, discuss the issue of abolitionism.
06	Discuss a topic using agreement and disagreement expressions and adequate proverbs.	Selected extract(s)	Group work: discuss the question of sexism and women segregation in the Algerian society in comparison with occidental societies. Use agreement and disagreement expressions and some related English proverbs.

07	- Explain the significance of idioms in English culture. - Use idioms in conversations to sound more native.	Selected extract(s)	Group work: each group is assigned an idiom according to which the members try to think about corresponding anecdotes. The representative of each group presents the anecdote and the other groups try to guess the adequate idiom.
08	- Explain the significance of phrasal verbs in the English culture. - Description of a morning routine using adequate phrasal verbs.	Selected extract(s)	Individual work: tell your classmates about your morning routine using phrasal verbs.
09 & 10	-Use the language to convince others with a certain position. - Use metaphor in speech.	Selected extract(s)	Imagine you are an orator (Hirakist for instance) what would you say to inspire your audience (your classmates) to adopt your thoughts (use metaphors).
11	- Storytelling. - use speech discourse markers.	Selected extract(s)	Tell a short story from your own experience to encourage or warn the audience not to make a bad decision. Use discourse markers.
12	- Discuss ideas and arguments on a given subject.	Selected extract(s)	Discuss the issue of Islamophobia that has recently engulfed non-Muslim countries. Use expressions of agreement and disagreement.
13	-Description of a given person.	Selected extract(s)	Pair work: You had difficulty getting your classmate to remember the famous British actor Rowan Sebastian Atkinson (Mr. Been) while conversing with him. Construct a conversation with more than 8 roles in which you assist your friend by providing a physical description of the actor and referring to his famous works.

Note. The table above summarizes the listening-free stage. From left to right, the columns represent the session, the materials used, and the activities introduced for each of the thirteen sessions. The ninth and tenth sessions are joint since they deal with the same topic, and the activity requires more than a session to encompass all the participants.

To introduce the topic and create a cultural environment in the oral-expression course, students were exposed to the related video excerpt only once as a mere watching activity (very similar to how they watch a film for fun at home or otherwise). This is supposed to bring life to the session and motivate students to respond positively to the course. No special reference was made on the part of the teacher to the listening and speaking issues.

Moreover, the researcher designed different activities for this stage that required individual work, group work, and occasionally pair work, according to the nature and objectives of each (see Table 7). They alternated between simulation, conversation, presentations, and role-playing, but primarily discussions, as is customary in oral expression classes.

Also, students were supposed to rely on their personal efforts and previous knowledge alone to understand the content of the video excerpt, at best notice some useful aspects of the English language, before engaging in the speaking activity. The teacher supervised students' performances and ensured order so that the discussion does not veer off to another topic or exceed the limits of ethics. However, at each session, she encouraged all students to participate in the given activity multiple times, so that she could evaluate their performance using the observation grid's indicators. Listening was, then, yielded to students' individual efforts and willingness to dive into the content of the video extract to analyse and understand its content.

In all, the fourth chapter, on the other hand, will primarily address students' attitudes and reactions to the lessons and activities of this stage.

4.5.7. The Listening-Based Lessons

In the present section, we hope to present a detailed description of the content and process of the listening-based lessons. It should be remembered that thirteen listening-based

lessons were held during the experimental stage, and each lesson dealt with a particular topic in a one-and-a-half-hour session. There was one exception: the ninth and tenth sessions, which dealt with the same topic and required the activity to be spread across two sessions to accommodate the twenty students' individual presentations. A handout bearing the different activities was distributed to the participants at the beginning of each session (see Appendices).

Furthermore, the time allotted to each of the three phases was carefully calculated based on the difficulty of each activity and the length of the video extracts used. It was also a question of whether the time assigned to the activity was sufficient to include all twenty students, given that an individual task obviously takes longer to complete and evaluate than pair or group work. Even though it seemed difficult and demanding at times, the researcher attempted to limit herself and her students to the timeframe. Nonetheless, efforts were made to keep the speaking phase as long as possible in order to give students enough time to practice their EFL speaking and allow the teacher time to evaluate their performance.

In what follows the description of each of the thirteen sessions including the three phases: pre-listening, listening and speaking phases.

4.5.7.1. The First Lesson

4.5.7.1.1. The Pre-Listening Phase (PLP)

The teacher began the lesson by briefly explaining the transactional and interpersonal functions of speaking. Subsequently, she stressed the importance of acquiring knowledge of the *speech acts* to distinguish the specificity of the English language compared to other languages and discern what is more appropriate to *speech* from what is specific to *writing*. Table 8 below represents the first lesson plan, including the general objectives, Lesson 1 specific objectives, materials, the time allocated for each phase, activities and the three phases' delimitation.

Table8

The First Lesson Plan

Lesson1 General Objectives	Specific Objectives	Materials/ Aids	Time/ mn	Activities	Phase
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	*Acquire knowledge about Speech Acts and registers (formal and informal advices).	+ Handout 2: Speech Acts.	10mn	**Pre-Listening Activity** *Give advice in a formal and informal way according to the table in Handout1.	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	*Experience a different listening technique than the teacher's simple reading aloud. *Comprehension of the dialogue read aloud by the teacher and the dialogue of the extract. *Raise students' awareness of the types of spoken language used by natives in terms of various speech acts, primarily for advising (in terms of spoken vocabulary, pronunciation, body language, hesitations, false starts, etc).	**+ Video-extract:** + Film: Notting Hill (1999). Source: YouTube[Notting Hill (1/10) Movie CLIP – Can I Have Your Autograph?] (Duration : 2 :10 mn) URL:https://youtu.be/ArlsU2_cUbg Handout 2+General Handout (part of Speech Acts).	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Listening Comprehension Activities (1,2). *Awareness-raising activity. (Individual work).	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	*Consolidation practice of a type of English speech acts (offering advice) through pair and group work (discourse management and interactive communication.		60mn	**Speaking Activities** *Appropriation activity *Automaticity (Pair and group work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

Students were supplied with a handout bearing: a definition and exemplification of the two previously mentioned speaking functions; a list of the different speech acts variations; and a table that shows how 'offering advice' (as an example of speech acts) differs from the written to Spoken English (see Appendices: Handout1).The pre-listening (warm-up) stage lasted no more than ten minutes and aimed to introduce some useful knowledge about English speech acts in general - specifically, advice - to prepare students for the rest of the lesson.

4.5.7.1.2. The Listening Phase (LP)

The second part of the lesson was devoted to listening, included three activities, and lasted about 20 minutes. The researcher thought it would be best to first expose the students to the traditional type of listening they should be used to (usual reading aloud of the teacher or peers) before having them experience listening to a conversation in English by natives using a video extract produced by one of the most famous film producers, Richard Curtis, entitled Notting Hill (1999).The goal is to compare students' reactions to the two listening techniques (with and without the video excerpt) and encourage them to recognize how listening to natives may help improve one's English-speaking skills. Another goal is to draw their attention to native speakers' everyday language, which they typically use in their interactions, including the way to apologize, make an offer, invite, suggest something, give a compliment; in short, English speech acts. Particular attention has been paid to how they advise.

The second activity was devoted to the comprehension of the extract's content. Students briefly answered questions about the main idea of the video extract, the setting, the characters and the relationship between them (see Appendices, Lesson One Activities).The language was not necessarily targeted in this activity.

The last activity of this phase, awareness-raising, was rather devoted to drawing students' attention to how English speakers advise, in addition to certain characteristics of

spoken English such as vocabulary, the use of clause-length rather than sentence-length, and performance effects (like hesitations, false starts, repetitions, etc.).

4.5.7.1.3. The Speaking Phase (SP)

This part is deliberately the largest. It lasted about sixty minutes to give the students enough time to complete the previously highlighted tasks and for the teacher to properly evaluate them. In other words, they had enough time to regurgitate and implement what they had learned in previous phases. On its part, the researcher had sufficient time to cautiously assess the reactions and performances of the participants with respect to the five indicators of the observation grid.

Two activities were planned for this phase. Unlike the comprehension activity, the appropriation activity, as its name indicates, is basically meant to incite students to concentrate on the lessons' gist (offering advice) and "practice control" of specific aspects of the language, rather than "control practice" (Thornbury, 2013, p.63). The students were asked to work in pairs and communicate solely in English while negotiating the meaning and debating the various responses. Additionally, they were given complete freedom to express themselves, and the teacher's only intervention was to raise her fist to indicate a problem. However, only errors that might impair listeners' ability to understand and comprehend the spoken message were subject to this action. Slight mistakes in spoken grammar were generally ignored such as forgetting to add the *s* of verbs conjugated in the present simple with *he*, *she* and *it* pronouns.

However, in case of misunderstanding what was being said, students were asked to rephrase their statements, if possible, to draw their attention to the fact that something in their message went wrong and needed to be fixed. If moving on was not possible, the instructor helped the speaker do so. She also made note of any mistakes or errors and set aside two to

three minutes before the session's end to encourage the students to review the rules and make any necessary corrections without mentioning the authors of the errors. In general, if it took a long time or seemed complicated, the researcher builds on the error at hand to change it and plan a subsequent lesson. On the students' request, the extract was played and replayed once.

The final activity was designed to guide students toward automaticity in their language production, which is a step toward autonomy and fluency in speaking English (Thornbury, 2013). Students were asked to work in groups and use their prior and newly acquired knowledge to reconstruct a similar dialogue (to that of the video extract) but with a different ending, using one of the two scenarios suggested by the teacher. The groups were then asked to act out (simulate) the dialogue in front of their peers and the teacher (see Appendices, Lesson One Activities). Meanwhile, the researcher took advantage of the students' presence on the stage, or at least what was supposed to be a stage, to evaluate them more closely, assigning a mark based on the indicators of the observation grid, as previously explained.

4.5.7.2. The Second Lesson

4.5.7.2.1. The Pre-listening Phase (PLP)

The teacher asked the students to list the various speech acts they remembered from the previous lesson in order to keep the topics related. Then, she distributed a handout outlining the main information needed to go through the second session's topic. The first part provided information about the importance of the word *sorry* in English (language and culture). In short, the teacher explained that in order to sound British, students must overuse the word sorry (see Appendices: Handout 2).

Table 9

The Second Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><th>Lesson 2
General
Objectives</th><th>Specific Objectives</th><th>Materials/ Aids</th><th>Time/
mn</th><th>Activities</th><th>Phase</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">*Development of the listening skills.
*Development of interactive communication. And discourse management.
*Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation.
*Raising self-regulation.</td><td>*Attract students' attention to the importance and frequent use of the word 'sorry' in the English language and culture.

* How to use "sorry" to express different English speech acts (apologies, express astonishment, say No, attract the attention / start a conversation, ask for repetition or show misunderstanding.</td><td>+ Handout 2: some functions of the word 'sorry' in the English language and culture.</td><td>10
mn</td><td>Pre-listening Activity

*Give examples of the different speech acts related to the word 'sorry'.</td><td>Pre-listening Phase (PLP)</td></tr>
<tr><td>* Notice some uses of 'sorry' through the different selected extracts.

* Show alternatives for sorry in daily conversation.

*Change the intonation with "sorry" to express different speech acts.</td><td rowspan="2">+ Handout 2: some functions of the word 'sorry' in the English language and culture.

+ Video-extracts: https://youtu.be/1QJdRgMLCiE?t=149 https://youtu.be/ArlsU2_cUbg</td><td>20
mn</td><td>Listening Activities:

*Awareness-raising activity.

(Individual and pair work)</td><td>Listening Phase (LP)</td></tr>
<tr><td>*Consolidation practice of the use of 'sorry' through the construction of a dialogue (pair and group work).
*Simulate a real conversation in English
*Focus on the use of the appropriate intonation.</td><td>60
mn</td><td>Speaking Activities

*Appropriation activities

*Automaticity activity (Pair and group work)</td><td>Speaking Phase (SP)</td></tr>
</table>

Additionally, the students were informed of the wide range of functions (speech acts) this word can convey in addition to apologies, namely: astonishment, starting a conversation / attracting the attention of an interlocutor or an audience, showing a misunderstanding, asking for a repetition, besides being a different way of saying *No*. Students were asked to give an example to each of those functions. Special attention was paid to the change of intonation when pronouncing the word *sorry* to convey the different speech acts.

4.5.7.2.2. The Listening Phase (LP)

The teacher prepared three short extracts from different famous films: Bridget Jones' Diary (2001); Notting Hill (1999) and Four weddings and a Funeral (1994). Each short excerpt was played three times, with an occasional reduction in playback speed, at the request of the students when the speakers went too fast. Awareness raising activities included three questions all based on the extracts. The aim is to diversify opportunities for students to notice how the word *sorry* is used in English culture to express not just apologies, but the various functions stated above.

Moreover, the teacher raises students' attention to the eminent role played by intonation to define the function of this word according to each situation. Accordingly, the teacher took the opportunity to incite the participants to reflect on their own language and culture in terms of how they express apology; how do they use the relative intonation; and if there are alternatives to express apology using different words/expression than the conventional ones, just like with the English *sorry*. Through this comparison the teacher targeted the developments of students' pragmatic competence.

The last activity in the listening phase was a gap-filling activity. The students were asked to listen again to the extract from 'Weddings and a Funeral', and in pairs, try to reconstruct Charles' speech before acting out the roles. The goal is to motivate students to

listen to details, including how words are pronounced, hesitation, repetition, false starts, changing intonation, and redundancy, etc. Also, the teacher attempted to raise students' awareness of a particular aspect of British culture: the importance of giving a speech at a wedding. In other words, the aim was to enhance their socio-cultural competence.

4.5.7.2.3. The Speaking Phase (SP)

The last part comprised two activities: appropriation and automaticity. The appropriation activity was basically meant to support students gain more control of what they acquired from the previous phases. In pairs, they were asked to build a conversation of no more than three turns each between a seller and a customer in a market stall. In order to increase student motivation, the teacher played on their sense of competition and explained that the winning pair is the one that is able to hold a coherent conversation while using the most speech acts.

The automaticity activity, however, involved the students in a more complicated task. It consisted of a game-like activity that we called the *Chain Conversation*, as the students stood behind each other in two chains while collaborating to build a conversation according to the given instruction. This time, students were incited to think quickly and modify their answers according to the requirements of the previous speaker's statement; a very close situation to the demands of an on-the-spot English conversation.

The teacher divided the class into two groups. All the members of the first group portrayed a security guard in a film theatre; the members of the second played the role of someone who arrived late at the box office and failed to buy a ticket. Each student took a turn attempting to continue the discussion with a statement that most closely matched the previous speaker from the opposing group. When a student failed, the next student in the same group took their turn, and so on until all of the students had participated twice or three times. This

activity requires lot of speed and fluidity. The best group consisted of those whose members introduced the speech acts (including 'sorry' and its substitutes) correctly and with the fewest turns missed.

4.5.7.3. The Third Lesson

The handout of the third lesson provides some useful phrases to help students broaden the vocabulary they use to express misunderstandings or request for repetition of the heard message. These are considered alternatives for *can you repeat* or *I don't understand* expressions.

4.5.7.3.1. The Pre-Listening Phase

The pre-listening activity was designed to help students remember expressions they already know and learn new ones.

The documents also included a list of alternative words/expressions for each of the words yes, no, okay, and thank *you* to assist participants in expanding their vocabulary and breaking free from using them repeatedly.

4.5.7.3.2. The Listening Phase (LP)

For this lesson, the teacher selected an extract from a Franco-British comedy that mixes animation and live action; Paddington (2014).The listening activity consisted of a speed-alternation activity, which stood for listening to the extract in three different steps: first at slow speed; second at normal speed, and last at fast speed. In each stage, students were intended to complete the conversation script with the missing expressions or edit what they had already written during the second and third playbacks. This activity was intended to help students develop their listening skill (listening for the gist).

Table 10

The Third Lesson Plan

Lesson 3 General Objectives	Specific Objectives	Materials/ Aids	Time/ mn	Activities	Phase
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Enrich students' vocabulary. * Learn some useful expressions of how to express misunderstanding of what has been said. * Learn to say 'No, Yes, thanks, Ok' in different way.	Handout3: some British expressions to express misunderstanding of what is said. Also, some more appropriate alternative words/expressions to YES, NO, THANK YOU and Okay in daily conversation	10mn	**Pre-listening Activity** *Notice unfamiliar expressions and practice them with the classmate.	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Develop the listening skill through a speed alternation activity. * Develop students' linguistic background. * Focus on some British idiomatic expressions.	+ The same Handout + **Video-extracts:**(2:11mn) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sCgnuhb45ik PADDINGTON - Paddington Meets The Brown Family.	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Awareness-raising activity. (Speed alternation activity) (Individual and pair work)	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases through the construction or reconstruction of a conversation with the introduction of the already learned words and expressions. *Simulate a real conversation in English.		60mn	**Speaking Activities** *Appropriation activities *Automaticity activity (Pair and group work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

4.5.7.3.3. The Speaking Phase (SP)

This phase was based on two activities: appropriation and automaticity. To consolidate previous learning, students were asked to use as many expressions (or words) from Handout3 as possible to replace *yes* in the scripted dialogue. Also they were asked to insert the word *sorry* or its alternatives (from Handout2) where possible. The objective is to create a connection between the lessons and to emphasize to students that everything they learn must be retained in the long-term memory for later recall if they hope to speak effectively. The exercise was set up as a game, and the winning team was the one who was able to implement the most effective adjustments. In addition to developing speaking skills, the goal was to increase students' competitive spirit and motivation.

The second speaking activity involved encouraging students to use their imagination to construct, in groups of four, a different ending to the dialogue based on a statement suggested by the teacher. Students were once more urged to employ as many of the pre-listening phase vocabulary as they could. Also, they were asked to pay attention to the different registers in terms of the type of language they choose for each character in the dialogue, while keeping in mind the relationship between the participants (informal or poshy English). Finally, each group performed its dialogue in front of the other groups, which played the role of the judges and allocated one of the letters (a, b, or c) to evaluate the work of each presentation based on: the number of words/expressions introduced (from the handout); pronunciation; and performance.

4.5.7.4. The Fourth Lesson

4.5.7.4.1. The Pre-listening Phase (PLP)

The handout of this lesson provided students with information on how the adjective *smart* is used differently between American and British English (see Appendices: Handout 4).

Table 11

The Forth Lesson Plan

Lesson 4 General Objectives	**Specific Objectives**	**Materials/ Aids**	**Time/ mn**	**Activities**	**Phase**
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Enrich students' vocabulary. *Learn the difference in meanings and usages of (smart) in British and American English. Learn Alternatives to Smart, good and bad in British English	Handout4 * the adjective smart between American and British English *Alternatives in British English to: smart, good, and bad.	10mn	**Pre-listening Activity** *Practice of the expression: is/are+such+adj+noun using adjectives from the handout. * Predict the events of the extract of the listening phase.	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Develop listening skill through a speed alternation activity. * Develop the linguistic background. * Focus on Ellipsis. * Expressions used to suggest something * Listen and infer about the choices made in the pre-listening activity.	+ The same Handout + the Beforehand handout. + **Video-extract:**(00-2:15 mn) Paddington. (2020, octobre 24). *Paddington | The Frightfuly Soft Knuckles McGinty | Friendly Faces*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RuvcFvi2-cI Sequence:https://youtu.be/RuvcFvi2-cI?t=56	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Speed Alternation Activity. *Awareness Raising Activity. (Individual and pair work)	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases' acquired knowledge. * Practise prediction and discussion in groups *Enhance students' motivation through a competitive activity. * Asking questions and evaluating the work of others.		60mn	**Speaking Activities** (Pair work and class discussion)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

As usual, a number of substituents were given to students for the words *smart*, *good* and *bad*. The objective is to increase their language background and vocabulary in relation to the socio-cultural peculiarities of British English.

Using the adjectives from Handout 4 and a predetermined expression (such + adjective + noun!), participants were asked to briefly describe one person they like and another they hate. Besides, they were given a statement and asked to predict a logical sequence for events, including the newly learned vocabulary and some useful English phrases to express suggestions. Therefore, two objectives were targeted: acquiring linguistic knowledge and using complex cognitive operations to deal with predictions.

4.5.7.4.2. The Listening Phase (LP)

The teacher chooses another short extract from the famous British film Paddington (2014). Before completing the fill-in-the-gaps exercise, students were asked to carefully consider a list of the omitted words before listening to (image-off) the extract twice: first at a slow speed and then at a normal speed. In order to identify what was missing, recognize words from their pronunciation, or infer words based on context and their position in speech, students were encouraged to listen for details. This was intended to help them develop their listening strategies. Another aim was to make students experience listening without reliance on visual clues, especially those who were used to heavily relying on what they see to generalize predictions of what they hear.

Likewise, and in an attempt to raise students' awareness to one of the frequent phonological aspects of speech (Ellipsis), the teacher picked up two examples from the extract, played the video and asked them to carefully examine the expressions before giving examples. The students were kindly invited to consult the General Handout they were afforded in the first session to gain more data on Ellipsis' description and exemplification.

The last question relates to the prediction activity of the pre-listening phase. Students were allowed to watch the excerpt (the image-on) so they could verify their predictions about events based on a given statement. Student had to mark their works out of 5, and then discuss the reasons behind their choices with their classmates. The objective was to learn how to combine linguistic, sound, and visual clues to make a successful prediction.

4.5.7.4.3. The Speaking Phase

In a competitive atmosphere, the teacher asked her students to work in pairs and imagine a conversation of two roles each based on a given statement. Students were supposed to explore the vocabulary and the phonological knowledge they have learned in the two previous phases, and prior knowledge, to complete the activity. Imagination and prediction are strongly fostered in the current activity. In front of the other pairs, who were supposed to offer feedback, each pair presented for three minutes. The work was presented again with the roles switched. The team that could persuade the audience and score the most points won.

4.5.7.5. The Fifth Lesson

4.5.7.5.1. The Pre-listening Phase (PLP)

As a warm-up, the researcher, this time, engaged the students in a prediction activity. To give students time to review their content and prevent wasting time during the pre-listening phase, the handouts were distributed by the end of the previous lesson. Students were asked to collect data from the two handouts (containing concepts and images related to the theme of the lesson). The goal was to get them to use prior knowledge and visual cues to make relevant predictions about slavery in 18th-century England. In addition, they were asked to cite books and movies they had already seen or read with similar plot lines that addressed the abolition of slavery.

Table 12

The Fifth Lesson Plan

Lesson 5 General Objectives	**Specific Objectives**	**Materials/ Aids**	**Time/ mn**	**Activities**	**Phase**
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Acquire some knowledge related to slavery and its abolition in the 80's. * Develop students' English culture. * Learn how to use information and images to make predictions (about the theme of the lesson and the selected extract). * Raise students' enthusiasm towards the listening phase.	**Handout 5 (a)** * Definitions of abolitionism, The Zong massacre, The slave trade Act 11807, The slavery Abolition Act 1833, The west Indies. **Handout 5 (b)** *Corresponding images	10mn	**Pre-listening Activity** *Prediction Activity	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Train students to rely on the image and the visual clues to infer about the events, the time and place where they occur. * Develop the linguistic knowledge by focusing on new vocabulary. * Help students understand what is behind the words and expressions (hidden meaning). * Focus on Ellipsis.	+ The Handouts + **Video-extract: (2:30mn)** Denice G. (2017). *John Explains the Zong Ship Case to Dido*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8oE6pfYSj-k&list=PLMDN6VfTfU3Zp1zXn9Z0OKIc8wcw_6vwk&index=29&t=75s	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Listening Comprehension Activity. *Awareness-raising Activity.	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases' acquired knowledge. * Enhance Students' imagination. * Dialogue building and simulation. * Competition and evaluation of others' works.		60mn	**Speaking Activity** Simulation (Group work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

The goal was to enrich students' cultural backgrounds one of the most significant events in British history. Another goal is to make them practice prediction and get ready for the next phases.

4.5.7.5.2. The Listening Phase (LP)

The film extract of this lesson was taken from a very famous British drama *Belle* (2014). The events of this true story took place in England around the 1780s about a young black lady, *Dido Belle*, and revealed one of the most significant events in England during this period: the first steps towards the abolition of slavery in the United Kingdom.

To help students get a feel for the 18th-century aristocratic lifestyle, they were asked to watch the video extract (the sound-off) and report on some features, including mannerisms, mores, and dress. Then, with the sound on, they were involved in a listening comprehension activity where they had to focus on certain details and understand the main idea of the conversation. During the awareness-raising activity, the teacher attempted to draw students' attention to the specifics of the language spoken by 18th-century aristocrats, such as pronunciation, intonation, and insinuations. A brief mention of Ellipsis was made before moving on to the speaking activity.

As a follow-up activity, the teacher encouraged her students to watch the full English version of *Belle* at home. The goal is for students to better understand the historical context and events while engaging in a longer and most likely more soothing, listening activity outside the classroom.

4.5.7.5.3. The Speaking Phase

The students were first invited to read a summary of the film Belle (2013). In groups of five participants, they were asked to highlight the main ideas, and then work together to

build a dialogue (of at least two roles each) in light of the summary and a situation suggested by the teacher. They were also encouraged to use previously acquired knowledge like ellipsis, speech acts, and authentic alternatives for some high-frequency words including *yes, no, good, bad, smart,* and *sorry* (Handouts 1, 2, 3, 4); in addition to information about slavery and its abolition (see Appendices: Handout5 a& b).

Each group presents their work in front of the other groups, who must rate the presentation on a scale of 0 to 5, according to the degree to which the conversation satisfies the desired task, whether all group members have been included with fairly equal chances, pronunciation, on-stage performance, and the integration of prior knowledge. To save time, each member of the *judge* groups was tasked with observing and evaluating one of the five elements listed above. As a result, when the on-stage group's presentation was finished, the corresponding scores of all the *judge* groups could be quickly announced. Furthermore, such collaborative work is intended to relieve students of the burden of speaking and acting alone in front of an audience.

4.5.7.6. The Sixth Lesson

4.5.7.6.1. The Pre-Listening Phase

As is customary, the teacher gives a brief introduction to some crucial information that will be covered later in the lesson. The topic this time was proverbs. In this particular session, the use of this type of folk literature was meant to provide students with insight into how Brits used to think and behave regarding the segregated position of women in the Victorian age. Therefore, students were given nine proverbs illustrating: the despised position of women, the lower thought of their characters and wisdom and their inferior position in marriage; all compared to men's status.

Table 13

The Sixth Lesson Plan

Lesson 6 General Objectives	Specific Objectives	Materials/ Aids	Time/ mn	Activities	Phase
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Acquire knowledge about the meaning and importance of proverbs in the English culture. *Learn some sexist proverbs about women. * Have insight on the position of women during the 18th century. * Learn some useful argumentative expressions as how to show agreement or disagreement. * Form an idea about the main features of the Victorian age.	**Handout 6 (a)** English proverbs showing sexism against women. **Handout 6 (b)** *Useful Expressions to show agreement or disagreement +images on the Victorian Era.	10mn	**Pre-listening Activity** *Arranging proverbs according to their meaning. *Describe the defining features of the Victorian era. Group work	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Acquire knowledge on the position of women in the Victorian Era * Developing students' linguistic Background by focusing on new vocabulary. * Help students understand what is behind the words and expressions (figurative meaning).	+ The Handouts 6 (a & b) + **Video-extract:**(00 – 2:45 mn) The extract: Victorian women | Life in Victorian times | 108 year old woman | Money Go Round | 1977 https://youtu.be/e4FZkXvAY94	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Listening Comprehension Activity. * Awareness-raising Activity (Individual and group work)	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases' acquired knowledge. * Enhance Students' imagination. * Hold a debate * Argument using agreement and disagreement expressions. * Raising motivation through competition and evaluation of others' works.		60mn	**Speaking Activity** *Automaticity Activity. Debate and Simulation (Group work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

With the help of the teacher, the students were required to work together to give an explanation for each proverb. Then, they were asked to rank each proverb according to the nature of the segregation it conveys, before reflecting on the issue of sexism towards women in English culture then and now. In the same vein, students were given five images illustrating the main features of the Victorian era to immerse them in the epoch and help them understand how women lived at the time.

4.5.7.6.2. The Listening Phase

The video excerpt used in the listening activity is an interview recorded on television with a British woman who was 108 years old at the time of this interview, and who lived so long that she could witness the various economic, educational, social and other changes; in short, she was born in the days of the horse and the cart and lived until she witnessed the airplane and the rocket.

The students were involved in a listening comprehension activity twice at normal speed where they were asked to answer a few questions related to the content of the excerpt, in particular the position of women in the Victorian era.

The next activity, awareness-raising activity, is designed to get students to listen to the gist. This time, the main focus is on another typical phonological phenomenon of English speakers: Elision. Participants were assigned three utterances from Florence's speech and were asked to focus on how they were pronounced after the teacher played the video excerpt at the given sequence of each utterance. Two minutes were allocated for practicing these statements with the classmate. The goal is to make students aware of this important aspect of spoken English, which, if mastered, will assist them in improving the speed and efficiency with which they produce English orally.

4.5.7.6.3. The Speaking Phase

First, students' attention was drawn to a set of words and expressions that convey sexist segregation against women extracted from "Sexism in English Proverbs and Idioms" (He & Zhang, 2018). They were encouraged to work in groups of five, with the teacher ensuring that everyone spoke English and allowing the use of dictionaries if necessary. Students were given approximately ten minutes before proceeding to the next activity.

This lesson's automaticity activity involved using all of the information learned during the lesson, including related vocabulary, proverbs, argumentative expressions, elision and ellipsis, and, of course, prior knowledge. Keeping the same groups of the previous activity, the participants were asked to simulate a TV debate on the issue of women gender segregation in the Victorian age. Each member of the group was expected to take a specific stance and argue using the *agree* and *disagree* expressions (see Appendices: Handout 6). Five minutes were allotted for task preparation, and each group was given five minutes for presentation; the others evaluated the work and assigned a mark out of five according the defined criteria. Those latter include: how well the work presented meets the standard of the debate, whether all members of the group were included with approximately equal opportunity to speak, application of elision and ellipsis, simulation on the stage, and the use of argumentative expressions.

4.5.7.7. The Seventh Lesson

4.5.7.7.1. Pre-Listening Phase

As a warm-up activity, the teacher asked the participants to compare the definitions of idioms presented in the lesson handout to the definitions of proverbs previously discussed. The goal was to get students to look closely at the details in order to spot the subtle

differences that distinguish these two aspects of British culture. Another goal was to get students ready for the next two phases.

Table 14

The Seventh Lesson Plan

Lesson 7 General Objectives	**Specific Objectives**	**Materials/ Aids**	**Time/ mn**	**Activities**	**Phase**
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Understand the importance of idioms in the English culture. * Learn some English idioms. * Compare proverbs and idioms.	**Handout 7 (a,b,c)** Definition of idiom List of some daily used British idioms	10mn	**Pre-listening Activity** *Compare proverbs and idioms *Give examples of idioms with their explanation (Individual work)	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Train students to guess, listen to the gist, quickly analyse the spoken message and cope with the speedy nature of the English language. * Draw students' attention to the importance of including idioms in their speech to sound natural.	+ The Handout 7 (a,b,c) + **Video-extract: (10mn)** ETJ English. (2018). Daily English Idioms & British Pronunciation. https://youtu.be/2JpGgK9nfdg?t=37	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Awareness-raising Activity (Individual work)	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the pre-listening and listening phases' acquired knowledge about idioms. * Tell an anecdote. * Speak rapidly. * Raise students' motivation * Develop the competitive spirit.		60mn	**Speaking Activity** - Automaticity activity (Individual work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

4.5.7.7.2. The Listening Phase

The excerpt used for this lesson was a little different in that it shows a young British man explaining and illustrating the first eight idioms listed in the Handout7 (a) in a very natural English. Before watching the excerpt, the students attempted to deduce the meaning of the idioms, and then after watching, they checked their answers. The goal was to train students to listen to the gist, guess and quickly analyse the spoken message, and cope with the fast-paced nature of the English language. It is also a matter of drawing students' attention to the importance of including idioms in their speech if they want to speak natural English.

4.5.7.7.3. The Speaking Phase

The automaticity activity was rather presented in the form of a competition game. Inspired from Thornbury's (2013) game 'Insert the word' we called the activity 'insert the idiom'. This time, each student chose an idiom from which to build a short anecdote about something they had personally experienced or witnessed. For that, they were allotted ten minutes. Afterwards, each student presented the anecdote in front of the class, keeping the idiom in question secret and making sure that the presentation did not exceed two minutes. The others tried to guess what the idiom was, and so on. If they failed, it means the speaker failed to match the idiom's meaning with the anecdote; or the speech was ambiguous. The student who guessed the most idioms was the winner.

The competitive nature of the game was meant to increase students' motivation and decrease the stress that can result from engaging in complex cognitive operations (extracting information, thinking, guessing, inferring, telling an anecdote, and focusing on certain features of pronunciation), especially when they are supposed to speak fast as in everyday interactions.

This time, the researcher raised the stakes slightly to observe the participants' reactions to not only their commitment to an individual speaking activity, which was always maintained as group work in the speaking phase of the previous lessons; but also, to perform in a limited amount of time (2 minutes).This resembles the situations an EFL speaker is expected to encounter in real communication.

4.5.7.8. The Eighth Lesson

4.5.7.8.1. The Pre-Listening Phase

The significance and density of phrasal verbs in Standard English was first explained and exemplified. The students were asked to consider the difference in meaning between the verbs when used alone and when combined with a preposition. The objective was to attract their attention to such aspects and prepare them for the next phases.

4.5.7.8.2. The Listening Phase

The teacher shows an excerpt about a young British man presenting his daily morning routine. First, students were asked to listen carefully to the content of the video excerpt and respond to the designed questions, focusing on the main idea, as part of a comprehension activity. Following that, they took part in an awareness-raising activity in which they were given a full written version of the young man's speech but with blanks instead of phrasal verbs, which they were supposed to fill out while listening to the excerpt again. The goal is to draw students' attention to a list of commonly used English phrasal verbs and how they should be properly pronounced. Elision was briefly mentioned again to promote its use and highlight its importance in natural English speech.

Table 15

The Eighth Lesson Plan

Lesson 8 General Objectives	**Specific Objectives**	**Materials/ Aids**	**Time/ mn**	**Activities**	**Phase**
*Development of the listenings kills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Acquire knowledge about the meaning and importance of phrasal verbs in the English language. *Notice the difference in meaning existing between verbs in isolation and the same verbs with prepositions (=phrasal verbs).	**Handout 8** Definition of phrasal verbs + a list of the most common English phrasal verbs.	10mn	**Pre-listening Activity** *Suggest examples of phrasal verbs. (Individual work)	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Develop listening skills to get the main idea from a spoken message. * Develop listening for details. * Consideration and practice of the pronunciation of the given phrasal verbs.	+ The Handout 8 + **Video-extract:** (9mn) ETJ English. (2017, mars 6). *Phrasal Verbs : Morning Routine (Good for IELTS)*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZeBgVZEoBYc&list=PLMDN6VfTfU3Zp1zXn9Z0OKIc8wcw_6vwk&index=42&t=524s	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Listening Comprehension Activity. *Awareness-raising Activity (Individual work)	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases' acquired knowledge. * Enhance Students' imagination. * Raise students' motivation through competitive games. * Argument + phrasal verbs. * Think and speak rapidly to win the game.		60mn	**Speaking Activity** ***Appropriation Activity.** *** Automaticity Activity.** (Pair and individual work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

4.5.7.8.3. The Speaking Phase

To increase students' motivation and competitiveness, the teacher assigns them to work in pairs, with one telling his partner the morning routine while including as many phrasal verbs as possible and the other counting the introduced phrasal verbs and time (no more than one minute each). When the timer ran out, the students switched roles and repeated the process. The winner was the person who correctly used the most phrasal verbs. This represented the lesson's appropriation activity.

Further, the researcher suggested another enjoyable game. This time, the activity, based on Thornbury's 'Balloon Debate' (2013), has students imagine they are in a hot-air balloon that is about to crash into the sea unless some passengers are sacrificed (dropped). To stay on board, each passenger (student) must be convincing; using strong arguments with a maximum of phrasal verbs. Every time a student failed to do this or took too long to think about what to say, he or she was considered dead until only two people remained on board: the balloon's owner (the teacher) and the last student (the winner).

4.5.7.9. The Ninth and Tenth Lessons

As a matter of fact, the above lesson plan is for both the ninth and tenth lessons. While the entirety of the pre-listening, listening and a part of the speaking (Appropriation activity) phases were executed during the ninth lesson, only the automaticity activity of the speaking phase was left to the tenth lesson. The nature of this activity, which requires each student to individually present an inspiring speech (Sparklines); and the willingness to allow them enough time to prepare their task, made it impossible to accommodate all twenty students in a single hour and a half session. Thus, the automaticity activity took the entire session, with twenty minutes set aside for preparation and three minutes for each speech presentation.

Table 16

The Ninth and Tenth Lesson Plan

Lessons 9& 10 General Objectives	**Specific Objectives**	**Materials/ Aids**	**Time/ mn**	**Activities**	**Phase**
*Development of the listeningskills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Acquire knowledge about the technique of making a Sparklines speech (e.g., public speech). * Learn how to use metaphor in speech.	**Handout 9/10** Definition of the Sparklines technique of presentation. Definition and exemplification of one of the most important figures	15mn	**Pre-listening Activity** * Mention an orator who uses the Sparklines type of speech. * Give an example of a metaphor. (Individual work)	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP) (Lesson9)**
	* Develop listening skills to extract information from the sound and the picture (visual cues). * Develop listening for details. * Focus on some features of the oral presentation (body language). * Make the difference between American and British spoken English. *Consolidation of the use of phrasal verbs. * Acquire knowledge about metaphor and its importance in Sparklines speeches.	+ The Handout 9/10 + **Video-extract: part1** [00mn - 02:19mn] **Part2** [02 :20 - 05 :17mn]. *(166) Martin Luther King, Jr. I Have A Dream Speech - YouTube, n. d.) from* *https://youtu.be/3vDWWy4CMhE*	60mn	**Listening Activities** *Listening Comprehension Activity. *Awareness-raising Activity (Individual and pair work)	**Listening Phase (LP) (Lesson 9)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases' acquired knowledge. * Enhance Students' imagination and motivation through speaking and acting as a public-speaker. * Encourage students to speak in front of an audience. * Consolidation practice of the use of phrasal verbs and metaphor in Sparklines speech.		15mn ----- 90mn	**Speaking Activity** ***Appropriation Activity.** (Session 9) ---------- ***Automaticity Activity.** (Session 10) (Individual work)	**Speaking Phase (SP) (Lesson9/10)**

4.5.7.9.1. The Pre-Listening Phase

The teacher focused on the *Sparklines* technique as the main topic of the lesson after explaining what a presentation is and naming some of its most important types (see Appendices: Handout 9&10). Later, she asked the students to give an example of a public speaker who they find inspiring and whose style matches *Sparklines*. This part was aimed to prepare the students for the lesson's listening and speaking phases.

Furthermore, the teacher briefly explained the meaning and importance of metaphors in English culture (particularly in public speeches), before citing a few examples and instructing her students to do the same. This phase lasted roughly 15 minutes in Session9.

4.5.7.9.2. The Listening Phase

To demonstrate the Sparklines technique of speech the researcher took an excerpt of one of the most iconic and influential public speeches in American history: *I Have a Dream*by Martin Luther King's Jr.

Two activities were designed for this phase. The first was an oral comprehension activity, during which the participants viewed the first part of the speech [00mn - 02:19mn], before answering seven questions. These included the identity of the speaker (Q1), the main theme of the speech (Q2), the way of speaking (manners, the posture of the speaker, rise in tone, change in intonation, etc.) (Q3), the historical context (Q4), deducing the meaning of a given expression according to the linguistic and visual contexts (Q5), extracting information from the visual cues (6), and comparing the speech delivered to other types such as religious, economic, or political speeches (Q7).

As part of the awareness-raising activity, the teacher first asked the students to concentrate on the pronunciation of specific words in order to determine the English spoken

variety in this extract (American or British). The goal was not to devote this phase to in-depth phonetic instruction but rather to improve the students' listening skills so that they could distinguish certain characteristics of the two varieties and become more proficient at speaking.

Subsequently, they were asked to consider some aspects of the Sparklines speech that were primarily intended to capture the audience attention. These include: the repetition of certain expressions, emphasis on certain strong words or syllables (stress), pauses, use of metaphors, and playing with rhyme to give speech a kind of musical rhythm. This was followed by a fill-in-the-blanks question in which they engaged in more listening-for-details activity to notice and identify the missing words. To conclude this phase, the teacher asked her students to identify some metaphors and phrasal verbs in the passage, drawing their attention to the frequent use of these features in spoken English in general, and in public speech in particular.

4.5.7.9.3. The Speaking Phase

The appropriation activity for this lesson required students to cautiously watch a short sequence from the excerpt before reproducing what Martin Luther King Jr. said exactly as he said it, being as convincing as possible. The goal was to teach students how to use the Sparklines speech and its main features. The partners then switched roles (orator/spectator) and repeated the process. To boost competitiveness and motivation, each student was asked to rate his or her partner's performance on a four-mark scale in terms of general pronunciation, word and syllable stress, simulation, and pauses. This marked the end of the ninth lesson.

The automaticity activity marked the tenth lesson and lasted the entire session. It involved the students in a one-on-one speaking activity. The goal was to put the student in the shoes of a public speaker in order to inspire the audience (the other students and the teacher)

and arouse hope and enthusiasm; especially since they could easily be got inspired by the famous Algerian Hirak, which was a hot topic at that time. Students were free to say whatever they thought was appropriate to support their case, as long as it included a metaphor, at least one phrasal verb, and lasted no more than three minutes. The audience was permitted to applaud and acclaim the speaker whenever they felt inspired and excited about the narrator's public speech.

4.5.7.10. The Eleventh Lesson

4.5.7.10.1. The Pre-listening Phase

The eleventh lesson focused on another presentation technique: the *In Media Res*, which is primarily devoted to short storytelling. It stands out by grabbing the audience's attention from the start, focusing on a pivotal moment in the story, and keeping the audience eager to learn the resolution. The goal is to help students learn new information and the ability to tell a story in front of an audience. The activity of the first phase consists of comparing the In Media Res technique with the Sparklines one.

4.5.7.10.2. The Listening Phase

The teacher brought a video about the son of an Egyptian terrorist brought up in hatred and indoctrination and who has long been persecuted in America, his country of birth, by his father's reputation as a terrorist (Ted, 2014). The video was divided into three parts of no more than two minutes each to keep students motivated and to make it easier to assign activities to the listening and speaking phases based on the lesson objectives. This time, the video excerpt was in American English. The aim was to get students to listen to another type of English and drew conclusions about the differences and similarities between British and American English. Another goal was to accommodate attendees who like American English and probably prefer it to British.

Table 17

The Eleventh Lesson Plan

Lessons 11 General Objectives	**Specific Objectives**	**Materials/ Aids**	**Time/ mn**	**Activities**	**Phase**
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Learn how to tell a story with the In Res Media technique. * Learn some frequent discourse markers; get aware of their importance in speech. * Consider glottal stop and connected speech.	**Handout 11(a& b)** *Definition of the In Media Res technique of presentation. * Discourse markers. *Glottal stop *Connected speech	10mn	**Pre-listening Activity** * Compare the In Media Res and the Sparklines techniques (Individual work)	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Develop listening for details. * Learn how to tell a story following the In Media Res technique. * Notice the importance of discourse markers in organizing speech. * Notice some differences between American and British English. * Practice glottal stop and connected speech.	+ The Handout 11 + **Excerpts:** Excerpts: (1) [00mn-03:23mn]; (2) [03:23mn -05:16mn]; (3): [07:04mn-09:00mn]. TED. (2014, septembre 9). *Zak Ebrahim : Je suis fils de terroriste. Voici comment j'ai choisi lapaix.* https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lyR-K2CZIHQ	20mn	**Listening Activities:** *Listening Comprehension Activity. *Awareness-raising Activity (Individual and pair work).	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases' acquired knowledge. * Enhance students' imagination to tell a story following the In Media Res model. * Practice glottal stop and connected speech.		60 mn	**Speaking Activity** *Storytelling (Individual work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

Accordingly, the first listening activity was based on the comprehension of the first short excerpt's content. Students were asked to answer a set of multiple-choice question by

ticking the correct answer after watching the excerpt twice (once at normal speed and then again at slow speed). The objective was to engage students in a listening activity which mainly targeted guessing the meaning of the spoken message through the consideration of the context; a technique which simulates the cognitive functioning of the human mind to solve real time problems of communication in a foreign language.

Next, students were engaged in an awareness-raising activity with the second and the third parts of the video extract. In the second part, the focus was on more specific information (details). Students were asked to consider the frequent use of discourse markers in order to realize their importance in spoken English. They were also given a list of words such as fanaticism, bullying, stereotype, animosity, and dogmatism and were required to work in groups to assign these words to the story of the video excerpt (the use of dictionaries was allowed).

In the third part of the excerpt, students were asked to complete a sentence with the missing phrase. After, they were required to focus on how the entire statement was pronounced, particularly in terms of connected speech and glottal stop, before taking turns practising the pronunciation of these sentences.

4.5.7.10.3. The Speaking Phase

The speaking activity chosen for this phase was primarily based on storytelling in accordance with the In Media Res model, which included, as previously mentioned, capturing the audience attention and keeping them eager to learn the resolution along the way. Obviously, this was supposed to increase students' imagination and improve their speaking skills through the use of all previously acquired knowledge.

The students were given two statements and asked to choose one. The first statement required them to tell the short story of an ordinary wife who lived an ordinary life until she

discovered that her husband was a member of the world's most dangerous terrorist organization. Students were asked to tell the story describing how she discovered her husband's secret, what decisions she made, and where her life has gone since. This was designed to appeal to female students.

Similarly, the second statement required students to act out the role of a caring father, and model citizen who also happened to be a member of the world's most powerful terrorist organisation. Torn between his convictions, his love for his family, and the terrorist organization's threats, the father was obliged to come to a decision (see Appendices: Handout 11). The activity requires telling the story while focusing on the decision he would make and the path his life has taken since that day. The students were asked to take into consideration the practice of glottal stop and connected speech. Each student was given two minutes, and the audience was limited to one or two questions at the end of each presentation.

4.5.7.11. The Twelfth Lesson

4.5.7.11.1. Pre-Listening Phase

As usual, the pre-listening phase is designed to prepare students to deal with the lesson's topic during the listening and speaking phases. This time, the topic was intended to be broadly interesting and exciting. On the one hand, it was unanimously validated by the participants during the first session when they were asked to propose subjects on which they would like to work. On the other hand, the topic dealt with some hot issues which have marked and continue to mark our time. These include: fanaticism, stereotypes and Islamophobia; three of the most intriguing subjects of *mass segregation*. The goal was to cater to the students' preferences in order to easily motivate them to participate in the debate planned for the speaking phase. We also intended to expand their vocabulary with some useful terminology.

Table 18

The Twelfth Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><th>Lesson 12 General Objectives</th><th>Specific Objectives</th><th>Materials/ Aids</th><th>Time/ mn</th><th>Activities</th><th>Phase</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">*Development of the listening skills.
*Development of interactive communication. And discourse management.
*Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation.
Raising self-regulation.</td><td> Learn how to extract information from the visual clues in images or videos.

* Infer about the lesson’s topic.

* Get ready for the next phases.</td><td rowspan="3">Excerpts: (1) [06:50mn-08:06mn]; (2) [09:00mn-10:02mn]; (3): [00mn-06:49mn]. TEDx Talks. (2017). The flight that changed my life | Samah Safi Bayazid | TEDxTysons. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NkQzEWkNrK8</td><td>10mn</td><td>Pre-listening Activity

* Extract information from visual clues.

* Infer on the topic to be held in the coming phases.
(Individual work)</td><td>Pre-listening Phase (PLP)</td></tr>
<tr><td>* Listen for general comprehension (understand the main events of the story).

* Develop listening for details.
* Learn new useful expressions.

* Experience another In Media Res storytelling example.

* Practice glottal stop and connected speech.</td><td>20mn</td><td>Listening Activities:

*Listening Comprehension Activity.

*Awareness-raising Activity.
(Individual and pair work)</td><td>Listening Phase (LP)</td></tr>
<tr><td>* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases’ acquired knowledge.

* Exchange ideas and arguments on a given subject according to one’s beliefs.

* Hold a debate and respect each other’s views and alternate turns.</td><td>60mn</td><td><u>Speaking Activity</u>

<u>Automaticity Activity. (Classroom Debate)</u>

(Group work)</td><td><u>Speaking Phase (SP)</u></td></tr>
</table>

The students were given a set of images and asked to extract information from visual cues to attribute each to the concept (race, religious, women or poor segregation) it illustrates. Because these only provide implicit clues to the concept they represent, students must carefully examine visual cues to determine which concept best matches which image.

Following that, the students were involved in a watching activity of two short video excerpts (with the sound off) to extract information from visual clues; this time presented in short video extracts rather than images, and draw conclusions about the topic. The excerpts clearly demonstrated the negative aspects of fanaticism, stereotyping, and Islamophobia, and conveyed the message that the world would be a much better place if everyone shared respect and acceptance of the *different other*.

4.5.7.11.2. The Listening Phase

Two activities were planned for this phase. The first was a comprehension activity. The students listened to another excerpt (of the same video) showing a veiled young woman telling her short story about a life-changing incident that was closely linked to the concept of Islamophobia in the United States. As the video extract is only played once, it was considered more useful to play it at a medium speed in order to facilitate the retrieval of information.

The following activity was an awareness-raising activity designed to draw students' attention to some useful expressions and their meanings. They were asked to work in pairs to provide examples and practise their pronunciation using their prior knowledge (glottal stop and connected speech). The students were also reminded of the significance of metaphor, proverbs, and sayings in storytelling.

4.5.7.11.3. The Speaking Phase

As an automaticity activity, the teacher planned a classroom debate. She deemed the students had gained sufficient linguistic, phonetic, discourse management, and interaction knowledge to engage in a collective adventure of debating a subject without the teacher's excessive intervention.

Based on their own beliefs and principles, students were asked to debate the issue of despising the *Different Other* and mass segregation on racial and religious grounds. They were also required to share anecdotes about similar situations they had experienced or witnessed, and were encouraged to include all the previous acquired knowledge, including vocabulary, expressions, proverbs and sayings in addition to pronunciation (connected speech, glottal-stop and elision).

It is noteworthy how much emphasis has been placed on alternating turns and respecting the other person speaking in a debate. Students were asked to listen carefully to what their classmates were saying and to use polite expressions whenever necessary to take a turn in the debate or interrupt someone speaking if the information was critical, or believed to enrich the debate. Body language was also considered as one of the paralinguistic tools. The researcher briefly simulated a few significant gestures that explained respectful ways to indicate that we have finished speaking or that we would like to speak.

Similarly, she briefly introduced some pause fillers such as *um, ah,* and *err* to demonstrate to students how to gain thinking time to order thoughts while speaking. She added useful expressions such as *mmm, hmm,* and *yeah* (back channelling expressions) generally uttered by cooperative interlocutors to indicate they are listening and paying attention; in addition to well, *y'know*, *yeah, nah,* and *like* (discourse particles) to express paraphrasing or to check whether the interlocutor (s) is listening. The words and phrases

mentioned above have been introduced briefly. However, due to student demand, they were decided to be included and detailed in the next session's handout.

4.5.7.12. The Thirteenth Lesson

4.5.7.12.1. Pre-Listening Phase

As to highlight each session an aspect of the most salient features of everyday spoken English conversation, the teacher, this time, emphasised pause fillers, chunks, and the vague language common in English conversations.

As a pre-listening activity, students were given a short conversation between two close friends who spoke allusively and with few words. Students were instructed to use their imaginations and the information provided in the handout to guess what the two friends were discussing in order to reconstruct the conversation using complete and clear sentences. The aim was to draw students' attention to the differences existing between spoken and written English conversations.

4.5.7.12.2. The Listening Phase

The excerpt selected for the listening phase of this lecture was taken from the British-American venture "Johnny English Reborn", the famous 2011 spy action-comedy film Starring Rowan Sebastian Atkinson as Mr. Bean. This served as the basic material for a speed alternation activity and an awareness activity in the listening phase. The selection of this excerpt was motivated by two factors: first, the actor's popularity and sense of humour; and second, the richness of the excerpt's content, which includes targeted features of natural spoken conversations. This was intended to keep students interested and motivated while also providing them with the knowledge needed to achieve the lesson's objectives.

Table 19

The Thirteenth Lesson Plan

Lesson 13 General Objectives	**Specific Objectives**	**Materials/ Aids**	**Time /mn**	**Activities**	**Phase**
*Development of the listening skills. *Development of interactive communication. And discourse management. *Development of spoken vocabulary and pronunciation. *Raising self-regulation.	* Learn the most characterizing features of English everyday conversations (pause fillers, chunks, vague language and ellipsis). * Notice some significant differences between spoken and written conversation. * Convert a spoken conversation into a written one by including what has been voluntarily omitted following the use of ellipsis. * Get ready for the next phases.	Handout 13 (Some features of English spoken conversation) Positive adjectives to describe a person.	10 mn	**Pre-listening Activity** * Complete the spoken form of a conversation to make it sound like a correct written version. (Individual work)	**Pre-listening Phase (PLP)**
	* Develop listening for details without watching (the image is hidden) * Increase students' linguistic knowledge (new vocabulary and new expressions).	Handout 13 **Video extract:** [08:56mn- 10:35mn] *Crown Jewels Stolen | Johnny English | Funny Clip | Mr Bean Official.* **https://youtu.be/GeUCZm-zBCM?t=536**	30 mn	**Listening Activities** *Speed Alternation Activity *Awareness-raising Activity (Individual and pair work)	**Listening Phase (LP)**
	* Consolidation practice of the listening and pre-listening phases' acquired knowledge. * Practice the features of natural spoken conversations in English. * Simulate a conversation * Enhance motivation and competitiveness. * Describe a person.		50 mn	**Speaking Activity** **Automaticity Activity** (Group work)	**Speaking Phase (SP)**

The students were first exposed to watching the short excerpt at normal speed to get a general idea of the scene and the subject of the conversation by combining sound information and visual clues; before listening to the content alone (with image off), at a slower speed, and completing the missing words. This was intended to improve students' listening skills so they can understand what was said without relying on images. Another goal was for students to focus on specific words and learn useful expressions from natural English speech in order to improve their conversational skills.

The awareness-raising activity required students to work in pairs to complete the conversation from the role 8 to 15, replacing short clauses (reduced by ellipsis) typical of real spoken conversations with full-structured sentences typical of the written form. In other words, longer sentences should be used instead of elliptic ones, and vague language should be avoided to the greatest extent possible. In each pair, students compared their work and discussed the various answers in English, asking for assistance when necessary. It is important to remember that pair work is intended to help students who have significant deficiencies or are shy about expressing themselves in front of the teacher and the class. Students respond better to the classmate correction and assistance than to the teacher's or the entire class. So, classmate's support was fostered to ensure safe and effective learning.

4.5.7.12.3. The Speaking Phase

This lesson's speaking phase consisted of building a dialogue on the basis of a guessing game. Students were divided into groups of three and asked to prepare a dialogue similar to the one they saw in the short video excerpt, but they must provide a description of a new assailant. The description should fit one of the classmates. The others (the audience) listened cautiously to their friends' performance and attempt to identify the assailant in question. Each group had approximately 5 minutes to perform their work which enabled the

researcher to have enough time to evaluate the three students on stage in terms of all of the observation grid's indicators.

The bottom line, this activity marked the end of the fieldwork and the beginning of data Analysis.

4.6. Data Analysis Procedures

According to the objectives and trends of the present research, data analysis was mainly carried out to answer the following main question:

- Is there an impact of the introduction of a structured instruction of the listening skill using authentic video extracts (the independent variable) and the development of second-year students' EFL speaking skill in terms of autonomy and effectiveness (the dependant variable)? In other words, the aim is to demonstrate whether there is a *difference* in students speaking performances before and after the introduction of the listening instruction.

Two statistical methods were used to analyse data obtained from the observational grids of the experimental group: The Paired *t*-Test and the computer statistic program SPSS.

The aim being to verify the existence or not of a significant difference between the means of the same sample before and after the introduction of the treatment (listening-based teaching), the paired *t*-Test is used in the present research as a tool of hypothesis test.

The Paired *t*-Test, also called the Correlated or Dependent *t*-Test, is a type of inferential statistic used when the samples typically consist of matched pairs of similar units, or when there are cases of repeated measures. Stephanie Wilkerson (2008) introduced the paired t-Test as a type of hypothesis testing used when two sets of data are being observed. She believed that the data in a paired t-test are dependent since each value in the first sample

is paired with a value in the second sample. Also, she outlined the difference in the means of both data sets as the parameter to make the inference.

In a similar vein, Ross and Willson (2017) stated that the aim of the paired sample *t*-test, as different from the population paired t-test, is to compare the mean of two matched groups of people or cases, or compare the mean of a single group, examined at two different points in time – to not confuse it with the Repeated Measures *t*-test used when the same group is tested again, on the same measure (p. 17).

The test statistic used in a paired t-test is known as The Student's t-Test (Wilkinson, 2008) as a reference to the English statistician William Gosset who published the rule of this test in the Biometrika Journal in 1908 ("Test de Student," 2022).

This type of parametrical test can only be used when certain conditions are met. The first condition implies that the sample must be small, no larger than thirty (< 30) (Wilkerson, 2008). Other conditions include: first, the sample must be randomly chosen; second, the study is initially held to investigate the difference between related pairs not the relation; third, it compares the means of only two paired units on a continuous outcome that is normally distributed (in case of three paired units ANOVA is recommended); and last, the outcome must belong to the interval or ratio level (quantitative/parametric) (Ross and Willson, 2017).

Relating these five conditions to our research, we confirm that all of them are met in the present investigation. First, the sample is relatively small including twenty students, and second, it was randomly selected from the entire second year population of the English department. Third, the study is initially conducted to investigate the difference in students' speaking performances before and after the implementation of the listening instruction. Fourth, the students assigned to the control group are the same assigned to the experimental group (two paired units); differently said, each participant student is being used as a control

unit against himself/herself. Last, the investigation is based on an outcome in the form of a mean calculated out of students' grades (degrees) before and after the introduction of the listening instruction which confirms its belonging to the quantitative level. All these conditions being met, we assume our choice for the paired t-Test to be suitable for the present study.

Hence, essentially known for its reliability and time-saving, the paired samples t-Test is actually introduced to determine whether there is statistical evidence that the mean difference between paired observations of the listening-free (pre-experimental) stage and listening-based (experimental) stages is significantly different from zero. This can be expressed in two different ways which are mathematically equivalent:

H0 ⟹ $\mu 1 = \mu 2$ (the paired population means are equal).

H1 ⟹ $\mu 1 \neq \mu 2$ (the paired population means are not equal).

Or

H0 ⟹ $\mu 1 - \mu 2 = 0$ (the difference between the paired population means is equal to 0)

H1 ⟹ $\mu 1 - \mu 2 \neq 0$ (the difference between the paired population means is not 0)

Where:

$\mu 1$ is the population mean of variable 1 (Before the introduction of the listening instruction).

$\mu 2$ is the population mean of variable 2 (After the introduction of the listening instruction).

The formula of the paired *t*-Test, denoted as **t**, is as follows (Dragonfly Statistics, 2013):

$$t = \frac{\bar{d}}{\sqrt{S_d / \sqrt{n}}}$$

Where:

t: Paired t-Test

$\bar{d}$: Mean of case-wise differences

S_d Standard deviation

n: Sample size

$S_d / \sqrt{n}$ Standard Error

However, the implementation of the paired *t*-test formula and the different calculations held to reach significant results will be reserved for the Chapter 6. The database for this formula is taken from a set of simple arithmetic operations, especially addition and division. In both series of lessons, students were evaluated according to the same procedure and were allocated grades (degrees) according to their performances.

In each session, the grades obtained by each participant based on the five indicators of the observation grid are added up, and the result is the student's grade for that session. The same procedure is followed for all twelve lessons in both stages of the experiment. The grades obtained by each student during the first stage sessions are then added up and divided by twelve (12), which is the number of lessons, not sessions (given that the ninth with tenth sessions represent one lesson). This results in the student's final grade dubbed *W* (significant degree), which represents their achievements regarding the English-speaking skill in the listening-free stage. The same procedure is followed in the listening-based stage so that each student receives a grade dubbed *Y*.

4.7. Limitation of the Study

The nature of the present study requires the researcher to be defiant but much cautious. Investigating the relationship between introducing the listening instruction and students' performances in the English oral communication, takes a lot of guts. From one side, dealing with teaching listening alone involves meticulous treatment of the procedures and a careful selection of the materials. This is mainly linked to the implicit aspect which characterizes the listening cognitive operations, and which makes them difficult to observe, apprehend and, even worse, measure.

Furthermore, the productive aspect of the foreign language (speaking) is not at hand. Things would certainly have been easier if the aim was to observe and measure writing. This is because it would be easier to evaluate progress in somebody's writing performance relying on some easily noticeable and measurable indicators, including mistakes and errors; writing style; vocabulary, the correct use of punctuation marks, etc. At variance, dealing with speaking needs much more concentration to detect any change in the speaker's performance.

Moreover, issues like shyness, fear of making mistakes and being subject to loss of face are the main factors that can either slow down students' progress, or prevent them from manifesting themselves and, thus, veil their real level, even when they implicitly succeed in making progress. Also, it is very difficult to delineate the indicators to measure speaking, and even when this is done, some indicators are very difficult to handle because of the speed of speech or the number of students, which requires the observer teacher to be continually concentrated and sensitive to any hint of progress.

Besides, it must be admitted that it was very difficult to bring together the students in the sample; and once done, it was an ordeal to incite them to attend all the sessions especially in the first stage. Also, the implementation of the fieldwork was repeatedly postponed due to issues like sporadic power outages and the disruption of the majority of Algerian sectors, including higher education, as a result of the Algerian *Hirak* movement.

In turn, COVID-19 put bars on the road when it came time to evaluate the findings and draw conclusions. A relatively long hiatus has characterized the long period of the deadly global epidemic that has ravaged the world and crippled everyone, ourselves included.

Conclusion

Accuracy and Organization are the bedrock if any well-established research is meant to be realized according to scientific standards. Reliability of the results is the gist of any earnest researcher. Thus, the present chapter was intended to establish the bases on which the approach and decisions of this research will be based. It is the charter that can ensure the integrity of the researcher or the plan that can avoid her to err.

The bottom line, this chapter covered: a statement of the present research aims and how it was designed and approached to meet the objectives previously drawn. The

experimental method section has occupied a relatively great deal of space in this chapter. From the statement of the research variables, framing the target population and sampling, the course of the experiment, how the tools were gathered, the classroom observation, how the experiment was implemented to the description of the data analysis; all constitute the raw material of this section. The next chapter is devoted to the analysis of the teachers' and students' questionnaires.

CHAPTER FIVE

TEACHER'S AND STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

ANALYSIS

Introduction

As part of the data-gathering tools used for this study, the questionnaires for teachers and students were handled with the utmost care. On the one hand, they are meant to serve as a source of information on teachers' and students' attitudes towards the treatment of oral-expression courses in general, including the difficulties encountered on both sides. On the other hand, they are particularly intended to report on their insights regarding the integration of listening with speaking in oral expression (OE) courses. Differently put, the answers to the different questions in both questionnaires provide for an overview of how the meant courses are held, and how teachers and their students interact together as partners of the teaching-learning process. They also serve as a guideline to understand the readiness of teachers and students to embrace a listening-based instruction to support speaking. The presentation and interpretation of the answers to each item of the teachers' and students' questionnaires constitute the main substance of the present chapter.

5.1. Teachers' Questionnaire Analysis

As mentioned earlier, eight oral expression teachers were invited to answer the related questionnaires to share their experience and bring out their perceptions in order to elucidate many aspects related to the present research. Thirty items ranged under five sections make the set of the participant teachers' questionnaires. Open questions are preferred to close ones to allow teachers provide free-form answers to describe their knowledge and share their views and beliefs.

5.1.1. Section One: General Information about Teachers

The first section consists of four questions (1-4) and aims at collecting data on the gender, age, years of experience of the participating teachers, in addition to whether they have chosen to teach oral expression or if it was just imposed by the administration.

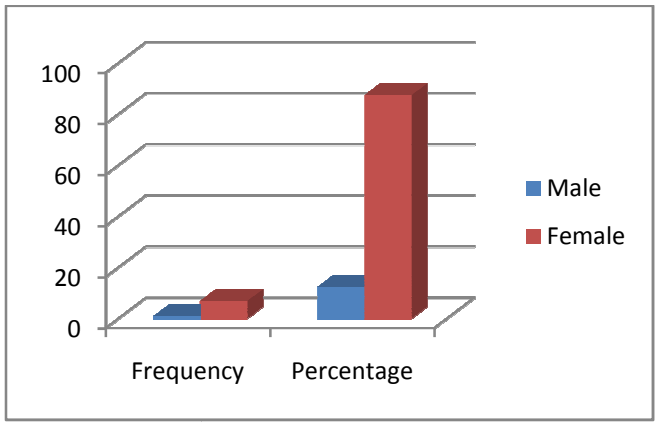
5.1.1.1. Item One: Gender

Q1. Gender: Male or Female

Teachers were first asked to precise their sex. Their answers are summarized in the diagram (see Figure 9).

Figure 9

Teachers' Gender



According to the results, the number of female oral expression-teachers (87.5%) largely exceeds that of men (12.5%) in the department of English University of Batna2 during the academic year 2019-2020. This overwhelming majority may indicate that female teachers tend to teach this course more than male teachers. On a larger scale, this considerable disparity of number may lead us to infer about the disproportion of the number of female teachers in general over that of men in the meant department. This may not be particularly significant for the present research, except for the small part which shows the inclination of female teachers to teach the oral-expression course.

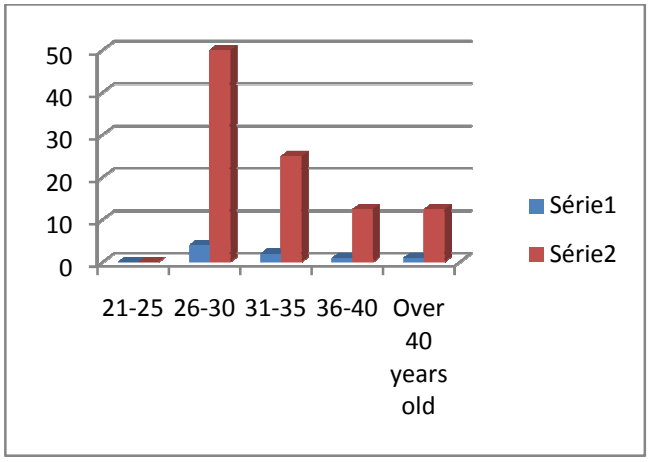
5.1.1.2. Item Two: Teachers' Age

Q2. Age.

The diagram below shows the participant teachers' ages according to five ranges as follows:

Figure 10

Teachers' Age



The answers revealed that no participant teacher is aged under twenty-six years old; that four (50%) belong to the second defined age range (26-30) and two others (25) belong to the third age range (30-35). Only two teachers selected equally the two last age ranges. Accordingly, we can say that the majority of oral-expression teachers for second year students in the department of English in the academic year (2019-2020) were relatively young.

5.1.1.3. Item Three: Teachers' Experience

Q3. Experience.

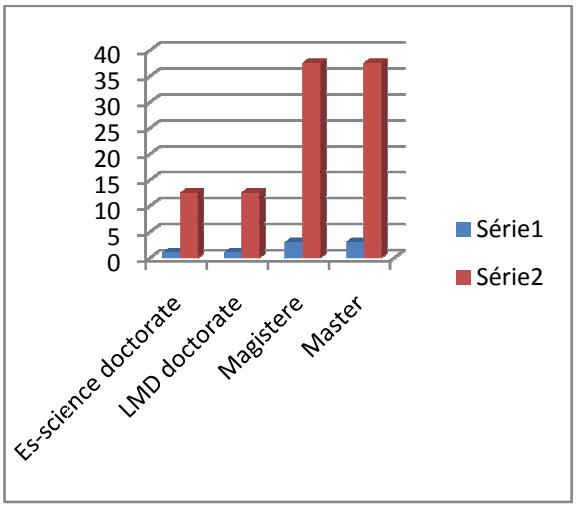
The question which aims to extract data on the experience of the participants is divided into three sub-items including the last diploma acquired; whether engaged as a full-

time or part-time teacher; and the number of years of oral-expression teaching experience. The teachers' answers are presented in the following diagrams in respect to the order of the three items of this question (see Figures 11, 12 and 13).

a. Degree:

Figure 11

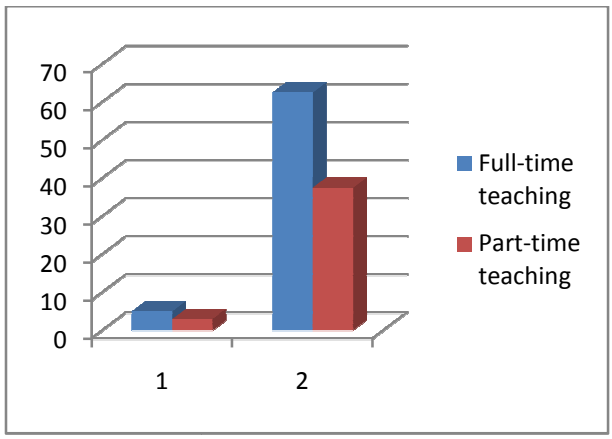
Teachers' Degree



b. Full-/part-time teaching:

Figure 12

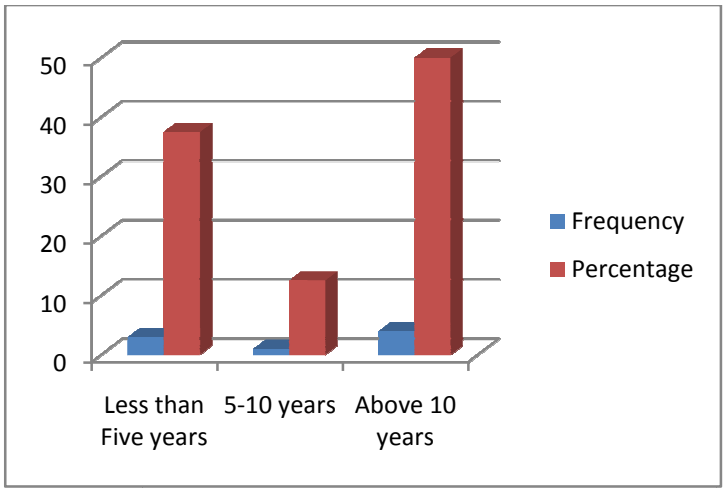
Full-/Part-time Teaching



c. Years of Experience in the OE course:

Figure 13

Teachers' Years of Experience in the OE course



According to the results, a majority of five teachers (62.5%) are full-time teachers who have more than five years of experience in teaching oral expression, among whom 4 assumed to have more than 10 years of experience. Their degrees vary between Es-science/LMD doctorate (25%) and Magistere (37.5%). Only three part-time participants have master degrees and have less than 5 years of experience.

In addition, all the teachers, except the two who already hold an Es-science/LMD doctorate, are preparing their thesis for obtaining a doctorate in English, and are generally interested in the issue of teaching oral expression.

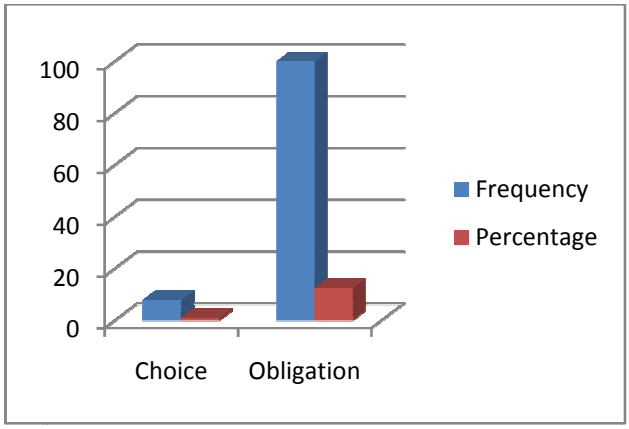
5.1.1.4. Item Four: Teaching Oral-expression between Choice and Obligation.

Q4. Is teaching the oral-expression course is rather your own choice or imposed by the administration?

This question investigates whether teaching the oral-expression course is a personal choice or some kind of administrative obligation. Results are in the upcoming diagram (see Figure 14).

Figure 14

Teaching OE between Choice and Obligation



All teachers assumed that they had chosen to teach speaking on their own accord to second-year students that year. Six teachers assumed that beyond being a question of preference, the teaching of the course in question is of great importance for the completion of their dissertation for the acquisition of a doctorate (Es-science or LMD) in English. However, when asked to justify their answers, they affirmed their attachment to these courses based on the feeling of being more productive and effective in the context of the oral expression compared to the other courses; the interactive nature of the course which makes it more attractive for teachers; the freedom to teach as they see fit; the multitude of topics that can provide material for discussion; the less structured aspect of such lessons which unleash teachers and their students from the chains of routine structured lessons.

In sum, whatever the reasons, the most important thing is that these teachers are inclined to undertake the speaking course out of love and enthusiasm, which is a positive point that works in favour of this research work.

5.1.2. Section Two: Teachers' Experience with the Oral Expression Course

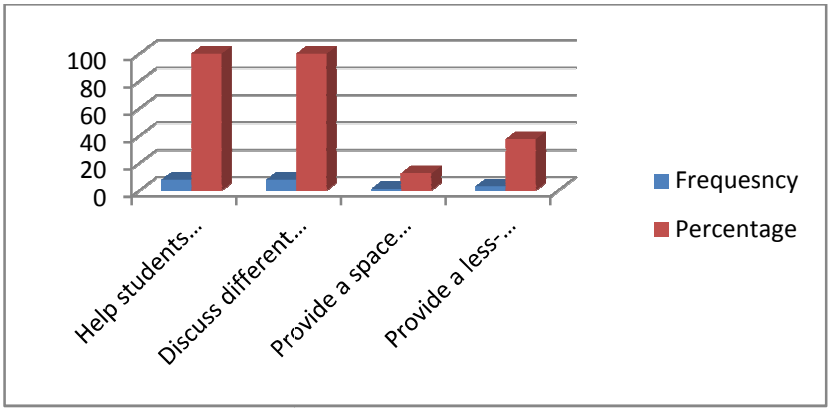
In the present section, as the title suggests, participants are required to report on their experience in the OE course including the general objectives, the methods used, motivation of the students, other languages they use besides English and the reasons behind such deeds. The section includes seven items from the fifth to the eleventh.

5.1.2.1. Item Five: Teachers' Objectives for the Oral-expression Course

When asked about their objectives for the oral-expression course, teachers provided different answers that we illustrated in the diagram to come:

Figure 15

Teachers' Objectives of the OE Course



Expressed in different ways, the eight teachers assumed that the purpose of this lesson was above all intended to develop students' speaking skills and expand their knowledge through discussion of different topics. Three respondents (37.5%) referred to the less

structured nature of the course which makes it more relaxing and favourable to the production of spoken English. Another teacher (12.5%) described the speaking class as a space where students can orally practice what they are learning in other classes; a reference to the receptive and productive character of the OE course.

However, no reference was made to the discourse and conversational competencies in these responses, let alone listening and autonomy.

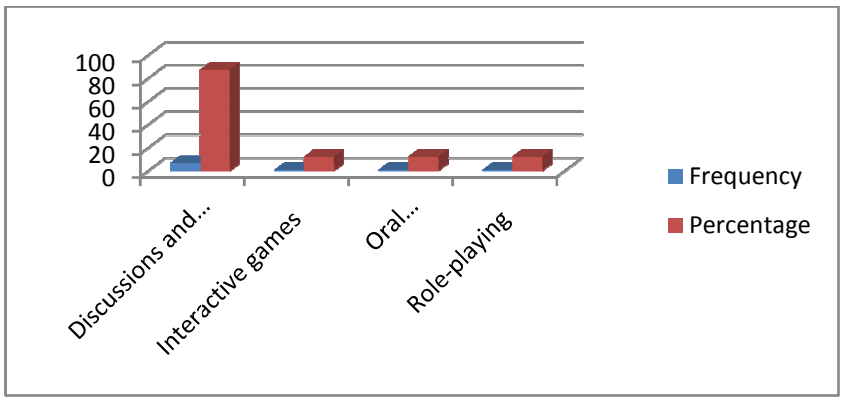
5.1.2.2. Item Six: The Methods Used for Teaching Oral Expression

Q6. How do you teach your oral expression course (methods)?

Teachers' answers about the different methods they use in the oral-expression course are illustrated in the following diagram:

Figure 16

The Methods Used for OE Teaching



This is another open question which aim to provide information on the methods opted by the participants to teach the oral-expression course. With a frequency of seven out of eight responses (87.5%) teachers, unanimously, favoured the inclusion of debates and discussions, in addition to other methods, including teaching through games, oral presentations of research papers and role-playing.

Very few activities are introduced in the meant courses, limited to participation in a discussion about a given topic. Some teachers specified that their role was centred on the suggestion of the subject and the initiation of the discussion to withdraw immediately after giving space to the students so that they interact and express themselves freely. Others prefer to take part in discussions instead to maintain order, correct student errors when they occur, and ensure the participation of weak and shy students.

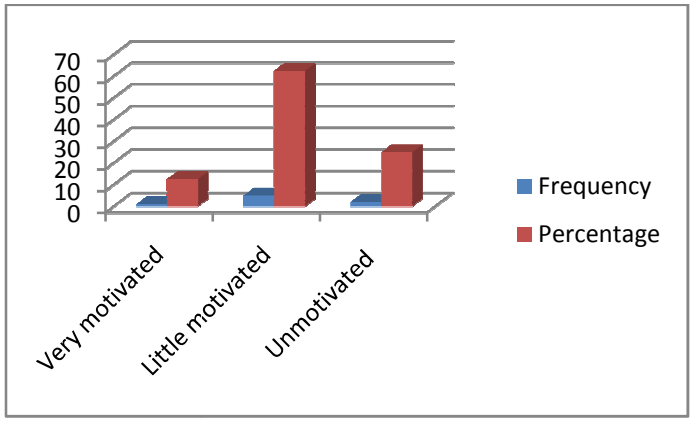
5.1.2.3. Item Seven: Students' Motivation towards the Teachers' Method

Q7. How do you estimate your students' motivation towards your method?

Teachers were asked to report on their students' motivation towards the method they adopt in their OE lectures. Three options were suggested as shown in the related diagram:

Figure 17

Students' Motivation towards the Teacher's Method



When asked about students' motivation, the majority of teachers reported that students were moderately motivated (62.5%) to unmotivated (25%). Only one teacher opted for highly motivated (12.5%), probably because of the method she used, that is based on games and songs. At least, the answers to this question allow the researcher to have an idea of the

students' degree of enthusiasm towards the methods used. Relying solely on debates and discussions seems far from sufficient to attract and retain students throughout the course.

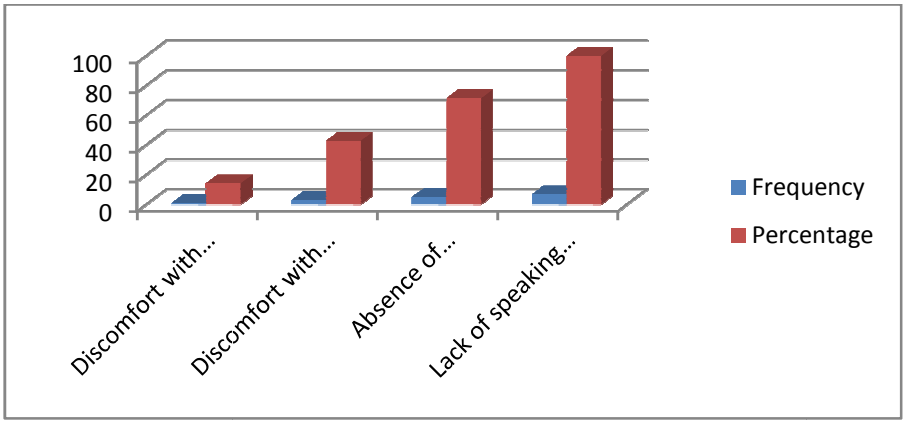
5.1.2.4. Item Eight: Reasons behind the Lack of Student's Motivation

Q8. If you answered 'b'/ 'c' to the previous question, what do you think are the reasons for the lack of student' motivation?

With the exception of the teacher who assumed that her students were very motivated, the other seven were asked to specify the reasons behind their students' reluctance. Results are presented in the following illustrative diagram:

Figure 18

Reasons behind the luck of Students' Motivation



While answers vary between discomfort with the activities (42.8%) and the absence of pedagogical means (71.4%), they all converge in students' lack of competence (100%). Only one teacher opted for the discomfort with the topics chosen (14.3%).

These results show that students' reluctance and lack of motivation towards the intended course are closely linked to their poor command of English. Their reluctance to cope with activities may be related to the nature of these activities as too difficult compared to their

level or uninteresting and boring. Similarly, the introduction of pedagogical means is considered to be of great help in "bringing the oral expression course to life"; one of the teachers asserted.

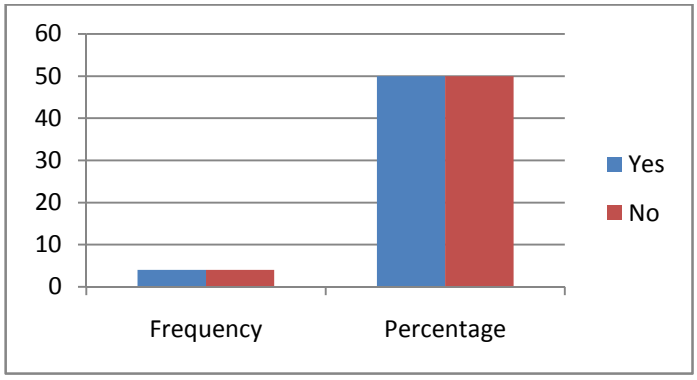
5.1.2.5. Item Nine: The Use of Other Languages than English in OE Course

Q9. Do you use another language/dialect than English in your oral expression course (French/Arabic/ Algerian dialects)?

This question examines whether the participating teachers use languages or dialects other than English in the oral-expression course. The diagram below summarizes the results:

Figure 19

The Use of Other Languages than English in OE Course



This time, the responses were evenly split: four teachers opted for 'Yes' (50%) and four others for 'No' (50%) as to the use of languages other than English in the intended classrooms. However, the reasons for these choices will be met in item eleven.

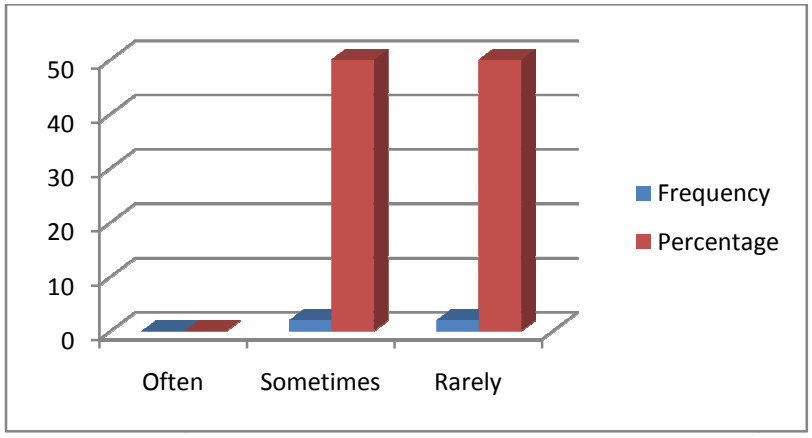
5.1.2.6. Item Ten: The Frequency of Using Other Languages than English

Q10. If you answered (a) to the previous question, how often do you use this/these language(s)/dialect (s)?

Only the participants who answered 'yes' to question nine are supposed to answer the present question. They are invited to report on the frequency of using other languages than English in the OE course. Results are set below:

Figure 20

Frequency of Other Languages Use



Two teachers (50%) among four opted for sometimes and two others for rarely (50%). However, even if no participating teacher assumed to use these languages frequently in this course; the problem of lack of exposure to spoken English is still there.

5.1.2.7. Item Eleven: The Reasons behind the Use of Other Languages than English in the English Course

Q11. Why do you feel the necessity to use other languages /dialects than English in the oral-expression course?

The answers to this question vary in style but they all pour into the same vessel. Teachers assume that their main purpose of using another language in their lessons is the intention to help students compensate for the difficulty of the English language and lack of vocabulary, let alone understanding its spoken aspect.

5.1.3. Section Three: Teachers' Experience with the Listening-Speaking Issue

This section aims to give an overview of how teachers actually manage listening and speaking in the OE class. Composed out of twelve questions, the third section forms the largest part of this questionnaire.

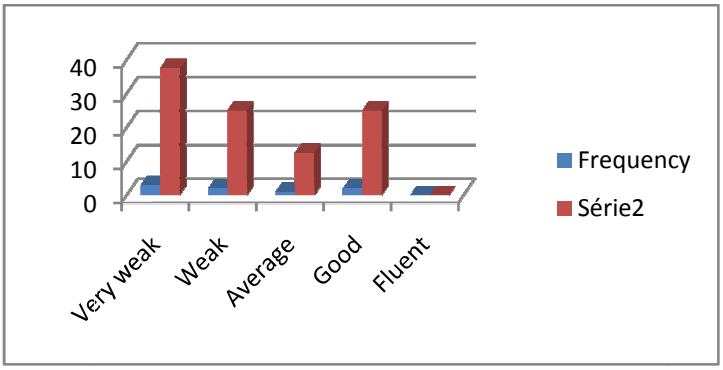
5.1.3.1. Item Twelve: Teachers' Evaluation of students' English-Speaking Performance

Q12. In general, how do you evaluate your students' English-speaking performance?

The purpose of this question is to collect data on students' speaking performance which refers to their speaking skill. Teachers were asked to select one of the five suggested options which range from very week to fluent.

Figure 21

Teachers' Evaluation of Students' English-Speaking Performance.



Results show that the majority of second-year students are below average regarding their English-speaking performance as reported by their teachers. Five out of eight teachers opted for very weak (37.5%) and weak (25%), three others for good performance (25%) and average performance (12.5%); however, no one rated these students as having fluent English-speaking performance.

5.1.3.2. Item Thirteen: The Reasons behind Students' Low English-Speaking Performance

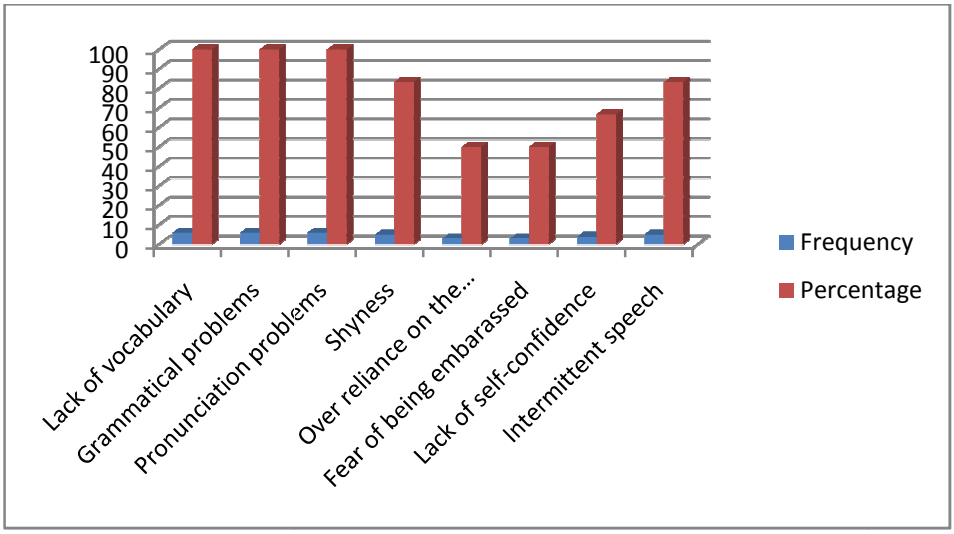
Q13. If you answered a, b, c to Q12, what are the main reasons behind this weakness?

This question is an open question reserved only for participants who have opted for options a, b, c, in the previous question. Six teachers were asked to mention the reasons that, in their opinion, explain the low speaking performance of their students.

Participants were quite generous in their responses. They handled the matter carefully and provided the help we hoped for. The answers were very precise and amply detailed; this can only reveal a reliable experience and a great awareness of the problems endured by the students. The answers are presented below:

Figure 22

Reasons behind Students' Low English-Speaking Performance



The results show that all the teachers unanimously professed at one hundred percent (100%) that their students had difficulty with vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. This refers to the absence of the key aspects of the English language that enable its correct production (speaking). Teachers also referred to the affective factors which including shyness

(83.33%), lack of self-confidence (66.66%), fear of being embarrassed (50%) especially when corrected, and the excessive reliance on the teachers and peers (50%) 'to compensate for their deficiencies in speaking' as mentioned in one of the answers, referring to autonomy in speaking. Five out of six teachers pointed out the students' problems of the production of intermittent speech (83.33%) referring to students' lack of fluency. This was expressed in different ways including "discontinued speech"; "gapped speech"; "... when they are speaking, they make much pauses that they cannot fill by themselves" or "students are unable to hold on speaking for long sentences". However, the word *fluency* was not clearly mentioned, but was underlined implicitly.

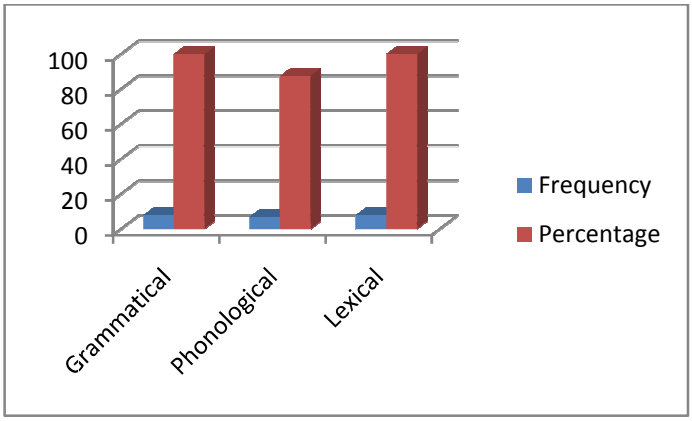
5.1.3.3. Item Fourteen: The Types of Spoken Abnormalities that Need Immediate Correction According to Teachers

Q14. What type of spoken abnormalities (mistakes) you think should be corrected immediately each time they occur?

In order to understand what kind of spoken abnormalities teachers consider and correct the most in the oral-expression course, we asked the present question. Results are as follows:

Figure 23

The Type of Mistakes the Most Corrected by Teachers



The teachers' answers were gathered under three main categories including grammatical (100%), phonological (87.5%) and lexical problems (100%). When referring to grammar, syntax was the most considered feature which they usually correct immediately. Phonological anomalies focus on the pronunciation of individual sounds and words in addition to stress and intonation. Lexical problems are exclusively related to the lack of vocabulary and/or the incorrect use of certain words instead of others.

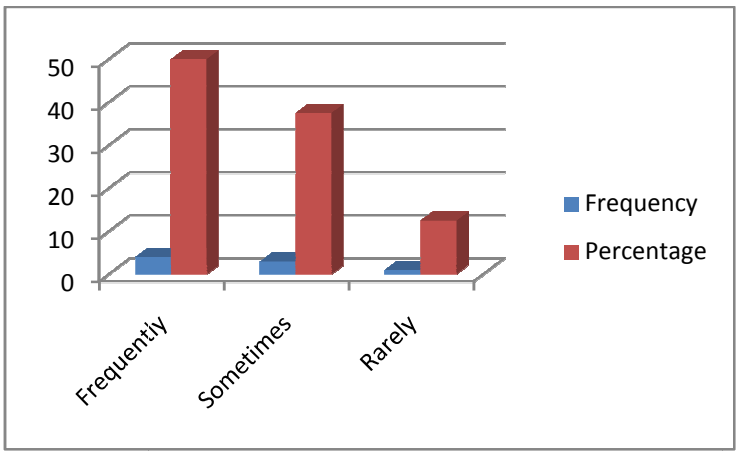
5.1.3.4. Item Fifteen: Frequency of Correcting the Mentioned Mistakes

Q15. At what frequency do you practice these corrections?

This question completes the previous one since it investigates the frequency with which teachers opt for immediate correction of grammatical, phonological and lexical mistakes. Three options were given as follow**s:**

Figure 24

Frequency of Correcting Students' Mistakes



Four teachers (50%) among eight answered 'frequently' against three (37.5%) who opted for sometimes, on the ground that students need to be corrected on the spot to make them reflect on the mistake and avoid repeating it in the future. Only one teacher (12.5%)

stated that she rarely corrects the aforementioned mistakes (spoken abnormalities) because she fears this 'will kill their appetite to speak'; she said.

Joining these results to those of the previous question, we notice that the majority of teachers practice immediate correction of students' grammatical, phonological and lexical mistakes, while they are speaking. Those interruptions, even rare, are supposed to annoy students and prevent them from expressing themselves freely which is the main objective of oral-expression courses.

5.1.3.5. Item Sixteen: Teachers' strategies to Help their Students Overcome the Insufficient Knowledge of EFL System

Q16. How can you help your students compensate for their insufficient knowledge of EFL system (e.g., spoken grammar, pronunciation) in the oral expression course?

This question investigates the teachers' strategies to help students surmount their problems with spoken grammar and pronunciation i.e., the English language system. Only six teachers collaborated to this question. In sum, the suggestions revolved around five main points: (1) the emphasis on listening to native speakers, (2) the emphasis on interaction activities, (3) the improvement of speaking in class and outside, (4) watching movies and the (5) endorsement of reading mainly novels.

5.1.3.6. Item Seventeen: Teachers' Strategies to Help their Students Compensate for Lack of Fluency.

Q17. How can you help your students overcome their lack of fluency?

When asked about how they use to help their students overcome fluency issues, only two out of eight teachers answered this question. This leads us to believe that these teachers do not know how to deal with the problem of the lack of fluency; or that they have never considered the matter before. The answers provided by the two cooperative teachers fostered

the accentuation of (1) watching movies; (2) emphasizing speaking through discussions; in addition to (3) listening to songs. This last suggestion may not be quite helpful over fluency conversely to the two previous ones.

5.1.3.7. Item Eighteen: Teachers' Strategies to Enhance their Students' Autonomy

Q18. What do you do to enhance your students' autonomy in speaking?

Unfortunately, this question was completely ignored by all the participant teachers. This leads us to think that they have never dealt with the issue of helping students manage their lack of autonomy.

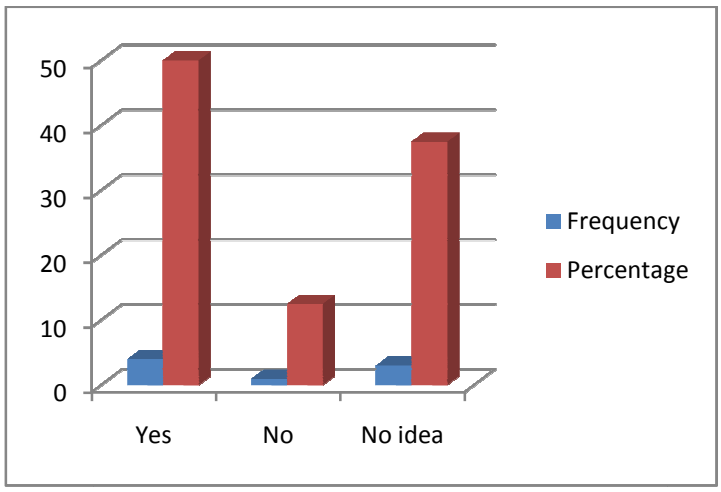
5.1.3.8. Item Nineteen: Teachers Opinions about the Importance of Teaching Listening Strategies over Students' Speaking Skill

Q19. Do you think teaching listening strategies helps learners develop their speaking skill?

We aimed through this question to investigate teachers' views on the introduction of listening as a support for speaking in oral-expression classrooms. Results are demonstrated in the following illustrative diagram.

Figure *25*

The Importance of Teaching Listening Strategies over Students' Speaking Skill



The results show that three out of eight teachers (37.5%) assume that they have no idea of the usefulness of teaching listening strategies in developing students' speaking skills. One teacher (12.5%) does not believe in the effectiveness of this method while the other four (50%) do. This means that half the number of teachers is unaware of the importance of integrating listening with speaking to improve students' speaking skills; which is the central subject of this research.

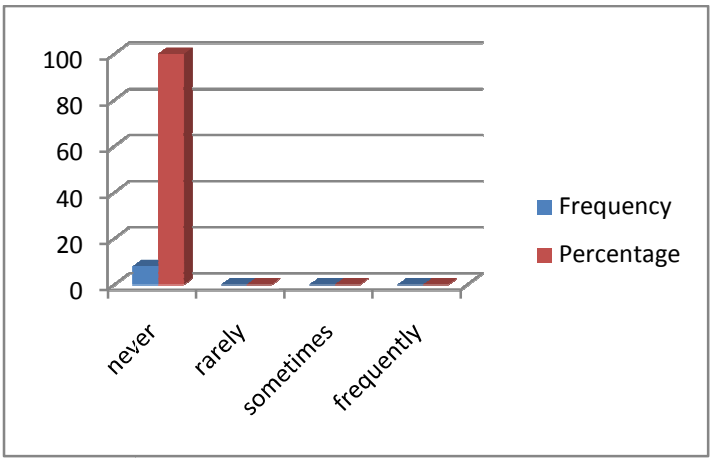
5.1.3.9. Item Twenty: Teaching Listening Strategies

Q20. Do you have the habit to assign some of your session's time to teach listening strategies?

Teachers were asked to specify whether they devoted part of their speaking course to teaching listening. Their reactions are demonstrated in the figure below:

Figure 26

Teaching Listening Strategies' Frequency



Results show an overwhelming majority of the first option; teachers have never considered the need to introduce such instruction in their classrooms.

However, relating these results to those of the precedent question, we find that even if four of the meant students have already assumed the probable efficiency of teaching listening over the improvement of the speaking proficiency, they never tried this in the field.

5.1.3.10. Item Twenty-one: The Way Teachers Apportion Time between Listening and Speaking

Q21. If you answered "yes" to question N°20, how do you generally apportion the time of the session between listening and speaking?

This question aims to gather knowledge on how teachers manage to divide the time of the session between listening and speaking: more time for listening; more time for speaking; or equal time shares. However, no teacher considered this question since no one teaches listening with speaking in their oral-expression courses (see item twenty).

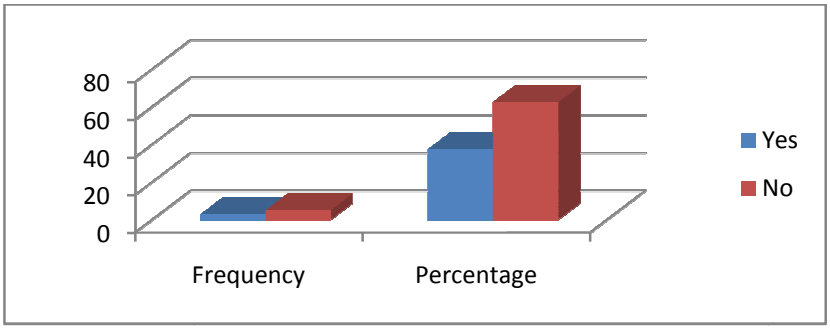
5.1.3.11. Item Twenty-two: Teachers' Reports on the Convenience of OE Session's Duration with the Development of Students' EFL Speaking Skill

Q22. Do you think the two sessions (per week) allocated to the oral expression course are sufficient for students to develop their EFL speaking skill?

This time, teachers were asked to report on whether the weekly schedule duration of the oral expression course satisfies students' development of the EFL speaking skill.

Figure 27

Teachers' Reports on the Convenience of OE Sessions' Duration with the Development of Students' EFL Skill.



Among the eight teachers questioned three (62.5%) think that the two weekly sessions of ninety minutes each do not support the overcrowded classes and the real need of all students to have enough time to practice their spoken English language. Some teachers claim the need for more sessions to allow them involve all students in their lessons, including the most reluctant ones, and incorporate more interactive activities to broaden the scope of English language practice and classroom discussion. Conversely, the five remaining teachers seem quite satisfied with the three hours scheduled for the OE course.

5.1.4. Section Four: The Use of Authentic Video-Extracts as a Pedagogical Material to Teach Listening and Speaking in the Oral-Expression Course.

The fourth section of this questionnaire aims to probe teachers' experience with the use of authentic video-extracts as a teaching material in the oral-expression course to support students' listening and speaking. The section is composed out of five questions mostly close-ended questions.

5.1.4.1. Item Twenty-three: Teachers Use of Video Extracts in English in the Oral-expression Course.

Q23. Do you use video extracts in English in your oral-expression course?

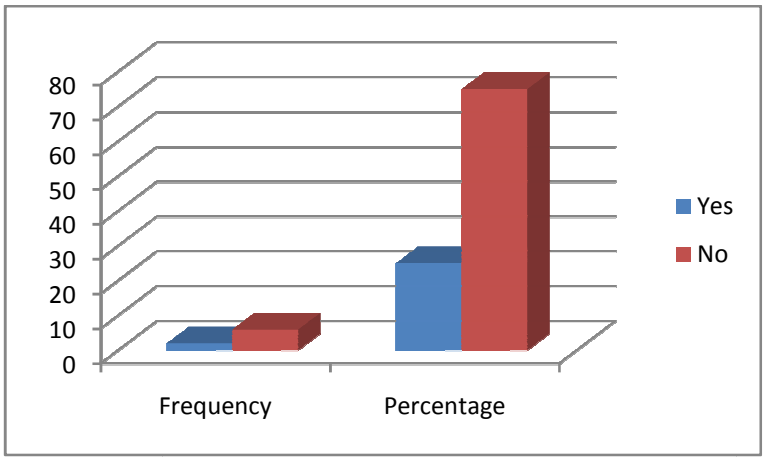
Given *yes* or *no* options, teachers were first asked whether or not they adopted the use of video excerpts in English in their lessons. The results are shown in Figure 28.

It seems that the majority of teachers (75%) do not adopt such teaching aids in their speaking lessons. This is related, as reported by those teachers, to the fact that they do not see how the introduction of video extracts can be effective in the meant lessons. Other reasons

include the difficult handling of these materials from selection to execution; and teachers' fear of wasting time instead of letting students speak as much as possible.

Figure 28

Teachers Use of Video-extracts in English



Only two teachers (25%) assumed their use of these aids in speaking lessons on the ground that they are quite useful in providing the students with a 'real English' as stated by one teacher. This means that only these two were expected to provide useful data about their experience and go through with the four coming questions (24-27).

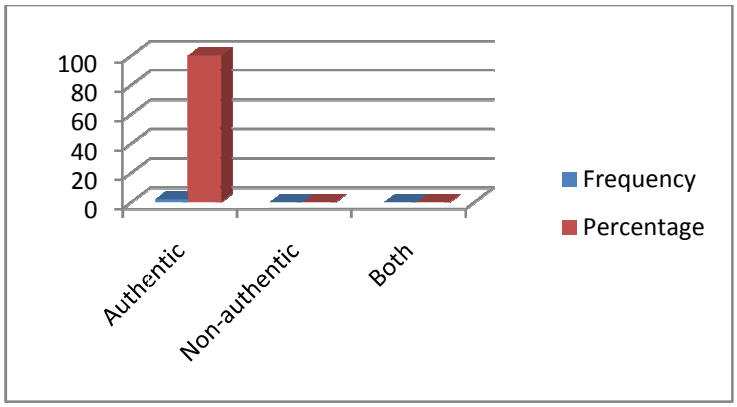
5.1.4.2. Item Twenty-four: The Kind of Extracts Generally Used in Oral-expression Courses.

Q24. If you answered 'yes' to the previous question, what kind of extracts do you generally use?

This time teachers were supposed to report on the type of video-extract they prefer to use in their classes in terms of the content: whether designed for FL teaching-learning goals (authentic), or/and not (non-authentic).

Figure 29

The Type of Extracts used in OE.



Both teachers have opted for authentic video extracts which are not exclusively intended for the teaching-learning of the English language. This means that students in these classes have more or less an opportunity of being exposed to the type of natural English native speakers use to interact or hold a speech.

5.1.4.3. Item Twenty-five: The Frequency of Using Video Extracts in the Oral-expression course

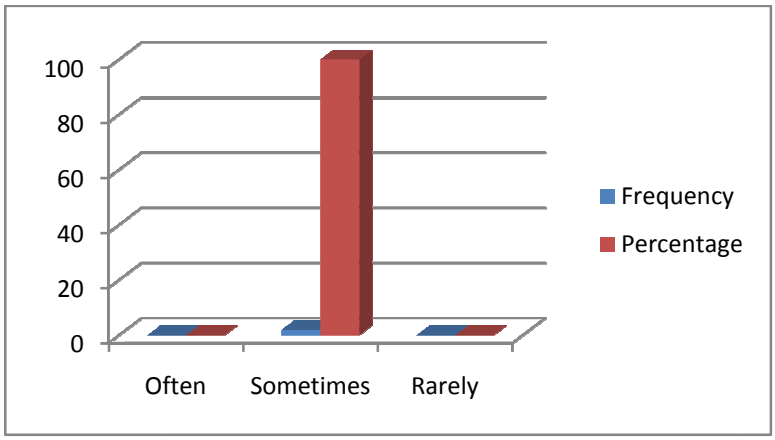
Q25. How often do you use video extracts in your oral expression course?

Teachers were asked to precise the frequency with which they use those extracts. Here again both teachers opted for the second suggested options 'sometimes.' Results are shown in figure 30 bellow.

This leads us to think that even for the minority who believe in the usefulness of the video extract over their teaching, the frequency of use remains unpromising for a reliable support for students' development of the listening-speaking skill.

Figure 30

Frequency of Using Video Extracts in OE

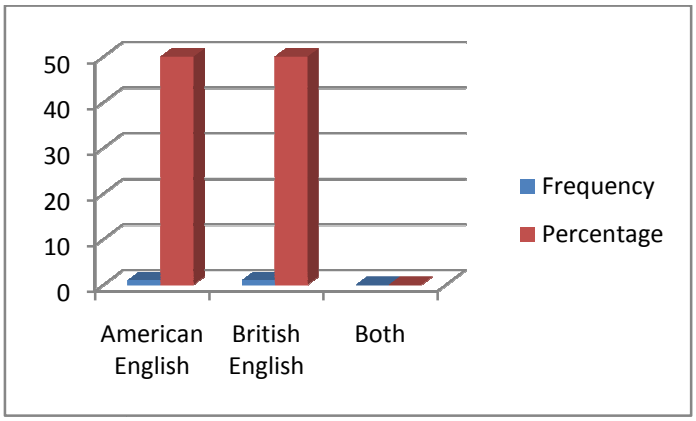


5.1.4.4. Item Twenty-six: The Variety of English of the Video Extract.

Q26. In terms of the language of the video extracts, do you rather opt for: American; British or both?

Figure 31

The Video Extract English Variety



The purpose of this question is to find out teachers' perceptions of the variety of English students are expected to be exposed to in these classes. Answers this time were

different. While one teacher selected British English; the other opted for both British and American English.

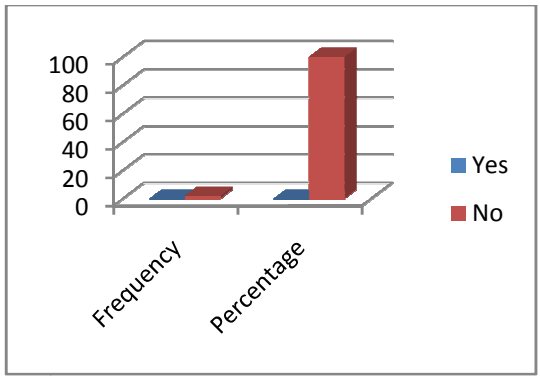
5.1.4.5. Item Twenty-seven: The Use of Activities Related to Video Extracts.

Q27. Do you use activities related to the video extracts in your oral-expression classes?

The purpose of asking teachers to specify whether they use activities related to video excerpts is to investigate how these videos are actually used. In other words, the objective is to inspect whether the use of the video extract is only a means of introducing the subject of the discussion, or whether it is a structured technique used purposely to teach listening and speaking. Results are as follows:

Figure 32

The Use of Activities Related to the Video Extracts



The two teachers who previously assumed that they sometimes used video extracts in their teaching admitted that they did not use specific activities based on these excerpts, except for a few simple questions related to the content of the video; primarily to examine students' general understanding of what they have watched. One of the teachers argued that her main goal in using audio-visual aids was to bring fun to the speaking class and to motivate her students to participate in the predefined discussion. Therefore, no real intention is made to

exploit these extracts according to a well-structured basis for the improvement of the speaking competence of the students.

5.1.5. Section Five: Teachers' Perceptions of the Efficiency of Introducing a Listening-based Instruction over Students Speaking Motivation, Effectiveness and Autonomy.

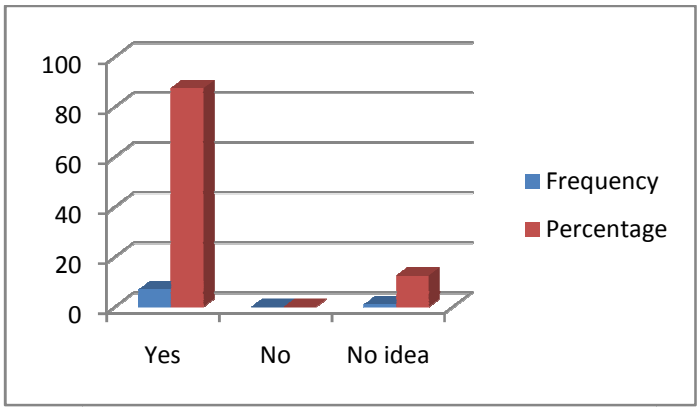
The last section of this questionnaire is designed for collecting data about teachers' insights, not especially experience, about the introduction of the meant listening-instruction in the oral-expression course in relation to the development of students' motivation, effectiveness and autonomy of speech. Three questions are designed, each relating to one of the aforementioned speaking aspects.

5.1.5.1. Item Twenty-eight: Teachers Perceptions about the Potential Efficiency of Teaching Listening through Video Extracts on Students' EFL Motivation to Speak and Participate in the Course.

Q28. Do you think teaching listening through authentic video clips can help increase students' motivation to speak and be more willing to participate in class? Please, justify your answer.

Figure 33

The Listening Instruction Influence on Students' Motivation to Speak and Participate.



All the eight teachers of our questionnaire's sample are concerned by this question. The aim is to gather data on their views regarding the probable efficiency of relying on teaching listening with authentic video excerpts to enhance students' motivation to participate and speak English in the OE course.

With a majority of seven out of eight (87.5%), teachers were positive about the effectiveness of this method in raising students' enthusiasm to speak English; against one teacher (12.5%) who assumed having no idea. However, no one disapproved clearly.

5.1.5.2. Item Twenty-nine: Teachers Perceptions about the Potential Efficiency of Teaching Listening through Video Extracts in Relation to Students' EFL Speaking Effectiveness.

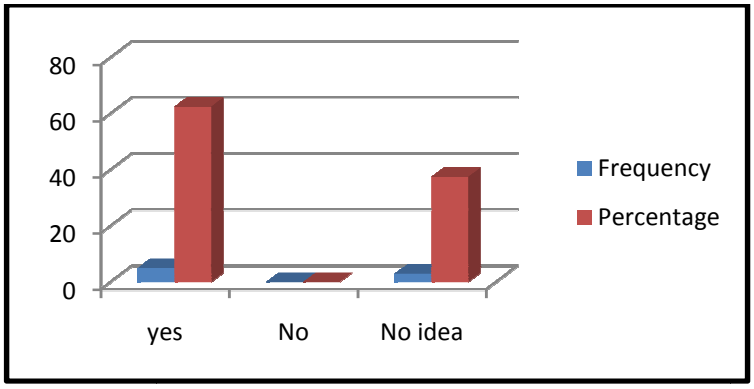
Q29. Do you think that teaching listening through authentic video extracts can be helpful in developing students' effectiveness in speaking EFL (knowledge of language system + fluency)?

Away from teachers' experience, the last three questions (28-30), as mentioned earlier, are meant to gather knowledge on teachers' perceptions of the subject issue of the present research. This time, we investigated how they perceive the potential usefulness of teaching listening using video excerpts over students' EFL effectiveness. This implies the improvement of their knowledge of the language system as what relates to grammar, phonology and vocabulary in addition to the fluency in performing this knowledge. Results are displayed in Figure 34.

A majority of five teachers (62.5%) believe in the potential effectiveness of introducing a listening instruction based on authentic video extracts to help students become effective speakers of EFL; against three teachers who seem to have no idea about the issue. At least, no one clearly asserts that this method is unsuitable for the set objectives.

Figure 34

The Listening Instruction and Students' EFL Speaking Effectiveness



A majority of five teachers (62.5%) believe in the potential effectiveness of introducing a listening instruction based on authentic video extracts to help students become effective speakers of EFL; against three teachers who seem to have no idea about the issue. At least, no one clearly asserts that this method is unsuitable for the set objectives.

The majority of teachers argued that good listening is the foundation of good speaking and that video excerpts may be a good vector of the natural language features that can help students in developing their speaking knowledge and performance. Yet, six teachers converge on the possibility of having difficulty managing this technique in the scheduled time of the session with overloaded classes. One of the teachers wrote: '*But how can it be possible to teach listening, use videos and let enough time for all students to speak?*' Among those who assumed they had no idea, one noted:"*... I really do not see how you manage to teach listening and speaking in the same session"*, another one wrote: "*and I think the oral-expression is supposed to teach speaking alone ... listening can be left to phonetics.*"

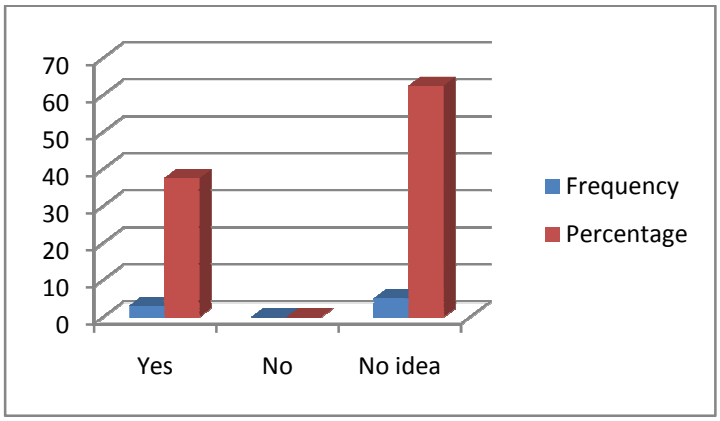
5.1.5.3. **Item Thirty: Teachers Perceptions about the Potential Efficiency of Teaching Listening through Video Extracts in Relation to Students' EFL Speaking Autonomy.**

Q30. Do you think that teaching listening through authentic video extracts can be helpful in developing students' speaking autonomy? Justify your answer, please.

The last question of this questionnaire aims to investigate students' perception of the potential usefulness of teaching listening via authentic video excerpts to help students develop their speaking autonomy. Results are illustrated below:

Figure 35:

Teaching Listening and Students' EFL Speaking Autonomy



As the illustrative diagram clearly shows, the results for this question are reversed from those for the previous question. The majority of respondents (62.5%) affirmed they had no idea of the possible usefulness of introducing a listening-based teaching via authentic video excerpts on developing students' speaking autonomy; against only three teachers (37.5%) who answered 'yes'.

Teachers in favour of introducing this method in the oral-expression course unanimously argued that it can be quite positive on students' acquisition of a large amount of knowledge about all the different aspects of the natural English which will raise, as things progress, their self-confidence that is supposed to pilot the increase of their speaking autonomy.

5.1.6. The Teachers' Questionnaire Results Summary

By and Large, the questionnaire designated for the eight participant teachers of oral-expression in the department of English University of Batna in (2019-2020 academic year) was quite helpful for the present research. Results revealed that the majority of teachers are relatively young teachers ranging from 26 to 40 years old. This means that they belong to a generation dubbed *Y* or the *Millennial*s who are before all digital natives (Allen, 2022, p. 296). They are generally characterized by a strong addiction to the screen, have round-the-clock access to the Internet and digital devices. Therefore, they must be familiar with the handling of digital devices and have at least a predisposition to understand, why not adapt, to the pedagogy proposed in this research and which requires dealing with the screen and videos extracted from YouTube. Also, belonging to this range makes them more or less the closest to their students '*generation Z'* (Seemiller & Grace, 2016, p. 2) which salves them from being considered out-tuned and allows for greater acceptance and influence over their students.

Furthermore, the majority of participants are full-time teachers with an experience which exceeds 5 years on average, and are teaching oral expression of their own free will and with great enthusiasm since many of them are preparing their doctorate dissertation in relation to the oral-expression instruction. Therefore, their participation in this research work is undoubtedly of great value. Their responses were precious in helping the researcher understand how oral-expression lessons are conducted; highlighting the most used methods and techniques; and pointing out the difficulties encountered by them and their students in terms of motivation, speaking proficiency, mastery of the language system and autonomy.

With regard to the objectives of the OE course, teachers' responses generally converge on helping students to develop their oral skills based on discussions and debates of different topics (methods). Teachers' roles vary according to their perception of what a good teacher is.

While some prefer to be invisible limiting to the minimum their interventions to allow the students sufficient space to interact and express themselves; others prefer the chairman role to maintain order, correct mistakes on the spot, and hold the reins so that everybody and everything is under control.

Both situations, however, may threaten the positive and friendly atmosphere of the session (Thornbury, 2013) or stir up feelings of animosity towards the teacher. It can also lead to a lack of enthusiasm for the course in general and the willingness to participate in activities while speaking English in particular, as pointed out by the questioned teachers. As a result, in the first case, students can abuse their freedom of expression, take the discussion out of context, and prevent less courageous or weak students from participating in the activity. The second situation, however, resembles the teacher-centred type of teaching where students have very little space to act and react. Consequently, shy and low-level students suffer from the abusive role of the teacher, especially when they are exposed to frequent interruptions under the guise of error corrections. Those with serious difficulties in expressing themselves in English hide behind the more courageous ones and prefer to abstain even when the teacher invites them to speak.

Therefore, it is clear that the oral expression course needs a more serious structuring to diminish, without excluding, the role of the teacher and increase, without exaggerating, that of students in a way to preserve the general order of the course. Along the same lines, students should be busy doing something throughout the session. For that, the planned activities must alternate one after the other to avoid unnecessary voids and maintain the interest and motivation of the students until the end of the course. However, these activities must be varied, attractive and adapted to the level of the students to avoid boring situations and ward off any attempt to disconnect from the course. In addition, they must fit into the general objective of the course, which is to encourage students to practice their oral English.

Therefore, they must aim to foster the practice of speaking in different ways: individually by answering questions or presenting something; in pairs with the classmate; or through communication and interaction within a designated group. The aim, in general, is to encourage students to become more active, more independent and more responsible for their learning.

Moreover, when reporting on students' lack of motivation in the oral-expression course, teachers strongly pointed the speaking competence deficiency which they later strongly attributed, and for the most part, to the cognitive factors that cover the poor mastery of grammar vocabulary and pronunciation. Apart from the cognitive factors, they mentioned the affective factors (mainly shyness and lack of self-confidence); and the lack of autonomy which they expressed as the excessive reliance on peers and the teacher. In other words, they interpreted the students' speech difficulties primarily as the result of a great lack of knowledge related to the English language system.

On one hand, students' cognitive problems may be due above all to the amount of exposition to the Spoken English in these classrooms. Half the number of teachers avowed they used Arabic or French with the intended English in their lessons as a compensatory strategy to help students cope with the difficult nature of the English language, including the spoken aspect. This seems quite inappropriate with the nature of the oral-expression course and the objective they previously underlined. In other words, if this course is chiefly intended for students' practice of English, the use of any other language is meant to lessen their chances of any ample exposition to English. Instead, this can lead to the EFL impairment and the expansion of students' dependence on their teachers or better peers and hinder them from achieving autonomy by limiting their opportunity to take responsibility for their learning in general as well as correcting their mistakes on their own. Put differently, instead of developing compensation strategies to cope with the difficulty of the English language,

students will rely on cheating from Arabic or French. The result will be at best a kind of gapped English or a fuzzy mixture of languages. Hence, students need to be exposed not only to the teachers' English but also to native speakers to explore a large fan of spoken English.

Similarly, when asked about their strategies to help their students overcome their speaking problems, teachers' answers were generally vague, sometimes even inappropriate. They confuse between written grammar which rather favours lengthy sentences and complex constructions, with spoken grammar which fits the nature of spoken English and which need a real consideration on their parts. We refer here to the grammar systems that support rapid, real-time speech production based on clause-length units rather than sentence-length units (Thornbury, 2013, p. 33). That is why accentuating reading novels, for instance, can only be helpful for the development of vocabulary and written grammar, but cannot regulate pronunciation and spoken grammar.

On the other hand, the 'affective factors' responsible for low motivation and poor speaking skills may have roots, apart from some students' innate shyness, in certain classroom practices of teachers. This is a reference to the reliance on frequent correction of students' mistakes. This means that those teachers consciously or unconsciously favour the English language accurateness to speech fluidity. This makes us reflect on the duality between accuracy and fluency in speaking classrooms. In addition, they must fit into the general objective of the course, which is to encourage students to practice their oral English. They must therefore aim to foster the practice of speaking in different ways: individually by answering questions or presenting something; in pairs with the classmate; or through communication and interaction within a designated group.

For these reasons, heavy corrections of spoken abnormalities should be banned in such courses and must be rather limited to rare rectification only when there is a threat over the

intelligibility of what is being said. In other words, the aim is to accentuate fluency over accuracy to not affect the flow of speech and alleviate the affective burden which generally haunts the students when they are struggling to speak English.

Other than students' cognitive and affective problems, teachers seemed puzzled on how to assist their students to surmount problems of autonomy. This is probably due to the fact that they have never considered the importance of this issue before. Or they may have already noticed their students' lack of autonomy but they ignore how to help them compensate for this problem.

The lack of autonomy can be noticeable through some students' inability to take responsibility for their speaking, in addition to their heavy reliance on the others (teacher and peers) to correct their mistakes and fill their gaps by themselves while speaking English. This is a reference to the self-regulation and self-correction strategies which allow students to paraphrase and use pause filler, for instance, until they find their words. Students should be first taught these strategies; after they must be exposed to them through watch-and-listen activities to acquire knowledge on how they can be practiced on the spot when needed by native speakers. Then, students must activate this knowledge by practicing and acting through appropriate and purposely planned activities. Relating to the present research, this issue was largely considered during the elaboration of the different activities and the choice of the lessons content, notably the related handouts.

Furthermore, when asked to report on the efficiency of teaching listening to support students' speaking skills, only half of the teachers agreed (see item 19). But when they were asked about the efficiency of teaching listening through authentic video-extracts in increasing students' motivation to speak and participate in the course (see item 28), seven teachers out of eight have approved the usefulness of the suggested method. This may be confusing.

However, we can relate this to the association of the word listening with 'strategies' in question 19 and the association of listening with 'authentic video extracts' in question 28. In other words, teachers may have found the word strategies confusing; may not be informed on the listening strategies issue; or even are aware but do not see their utility in such courses. Conversely, in the second case teachers may have relied on their experience or their belief of the efficiency of audio-visual aids to draw conclusions on the effectiveness of this method over students' motivation and speaking competence. The notion of the listening instruction seems vague and reduced to being realisable only through simple exposure to audio-visual pedagogical aids.

Similarly, when we compare the results of question 28 to those of question 23, we find that even if the majority of teachers affirmed they do not use video extracts in their oral-expression classes, almost all of them approved the possibility of the positive influence teaching listening through authentic video extracts may have on students' motivation and English-speaking performances. This may come down to the overcrowded nature of OE classrooms that do not allow for the manipulation of devices which can be time consuming; if not well managed of course. Otherwise, teachers may simply not be aware of how to introduce these aids in a structured way so that they make them useful and profitable. Moreover, the association of authentic audio-visual aids with the listening instruction probably raised teachers' positive opinion about the worth of the implementation of the present method in the oral-expression course.

In the same lines, results show that some teachers introduce authentic video extracts to their OE courses mainly to animate those classes and allow students the opportunity to experience another English than the usual teachers' one. However, this low percentage add to the fact that they do not associate listening activities to the implementation of those videos, remain unpromising for a reliable support of students' listening-speaking skill.

And, when asked to state the variety of English they opt for when choosing audiovisual materials, they agreed on British English. In fact, the English variety supposed to be taught or learned in any Algerian English department, as decided by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, is primarily British English. American English is allowed, for the most part, to be used for very specific purposes as to demonstrate the difference between the two varieties; or left to teachers' choice. Yet, this may not suit today's students who are too exposed to Hollywood production that may influence their tendencies to prefer American to British. This can reverse the roles, since the students, who prefer or are good in American, base themselves on the latter to learn British English. In other words, all learning mechanisms are converted from American to British instead. Therefore, the introduction of American English in addition of course to the predefined British can be beneficial; the reason behind which we opted for both varieties in the selection of the video extracts intended for the present experiment.

At length, findings show that teachers in their majority have supportive conjecture about the positive influence teaching listening with authentic video excerpts may have on both students' motivation and speaking effectiveness (knowledge of the language system and fluency), but with some reservations. They dread this method to be time-consuming which may hinder the main objective of the oral expression course based on *let students speak!* as stated by one of them. Also, some teachers find it inappropriate, even uncanny, to teach listening in the oral-expression lesson on the basis that this is more a business of phonetics courses.

Teachers' reservations are legitimate. Teaching listening is in itself demanding and must be handled with great care to achieve the objectives set out without going beyond the space reserved for speech; and which must be kept the largest. Also, video excerpts should be kept short and the time allotted for the related activities should be precisely determined.

However, listening is not only a matter of phonetics; it is an integral part of speaking and is the matter of the oral-expression course (integrating listening with speaking).

However, teachers remain perplexed as to the influence of this method over students' autonomy. This comes down, according to some teachers, to what actually the term speaking autonomy stands for. While others related their position to the blurry image they have on the existence of whatever relationship between developing students' autonomy in speech and the intended listening-based instruction; others denoted their inability to see how autonomy may relate to speaking performance.

In all, this is part of our objectives for the present research, since we aim to demonstrate if there can be an influence of teaching listening with authentic video extracts over speech autonomy and effectiveness. In other words, we intend to prove the impact of this method on mastering the knowledge of the English language system and fluency which stand for 'effectiveness'; and its influence on students' independence in monitoring, altering, and correcting their speech without relying too much on the teacher's and peers' assistance, which stands for *speech autonomy*. Hence the aim is the "overall oral competence" as called by (Chambers, 1997).

5.2. Students' Questionnaire Analysis

Students' questionnaire was carefully designed; words meticulously selected and questions were cautiously elaborated in consideration of the level of the two hundred fifty participant students. It aims at gathering data from their experience with the oral expression course and sketching a general vision on their perspectives and their difficulties in what concerns the listening-speaking issue in oral-expression classrooms; in addition to their opinion on the use of video extracts as a pedagogical aid to support the listening-based instruction. Unlike with teachers, this questionnaire is divided into four untitled sections to

keep the purpose of each hidden, allowing for more spontaneous responses from students. Each section includes questions written in simple English and organized from the most general to the most subtle and detailed. The four sections with the thirty questions are presented in details thereafter.

5.2.1. Section One: General Information about Students

This section aims to collect data on gender, age, whether studying English is a personal choice or the result of some obligation, in addition to the prospects students hope to achieve from such instruction. The results of the students' responses to the four questions are presented below.

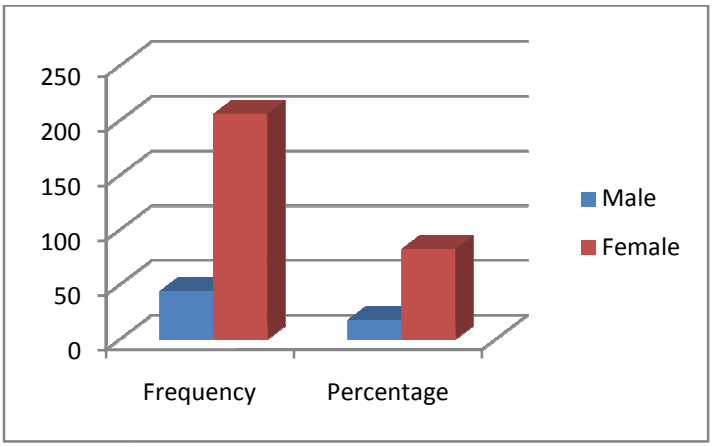
5.2.1.1. Item One: Gender

Q1. Male or Female.

The first question aims to collect information on the number of male and female students among the two hundred fifty participants. Results show that:

Figure 36

Students' Gender



The results show that among the two hundred and fifty participants, there is an overwhelming majority of two hundred and six females (82.4%) against only forty-four males (17.6%).

5.2.1.2. Item Two: Age

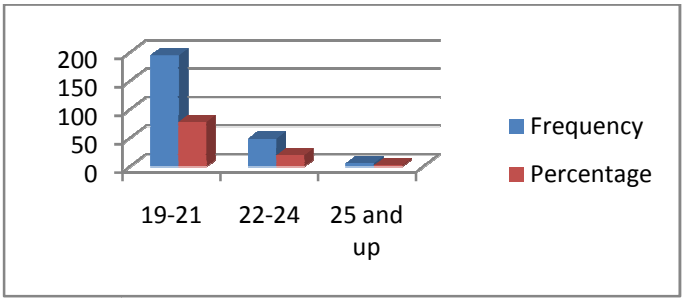
Q2: .....years old.

Students were asked to precise their age. Results were ranged as follows:

According to the results displayed in Diagram 37 bellow, one hundred ninety-five students (78%) range between nineteen and twenty-one years old; forty-nine (19.6%) between twenty-two and twenty-four; and only six students (2.4%) range from twenty-five years old and up. And among the one hundred ninety-five students, a majority of one hundred thirty-three students (68.2%) have twenty years old.

Figure 37

Students Age



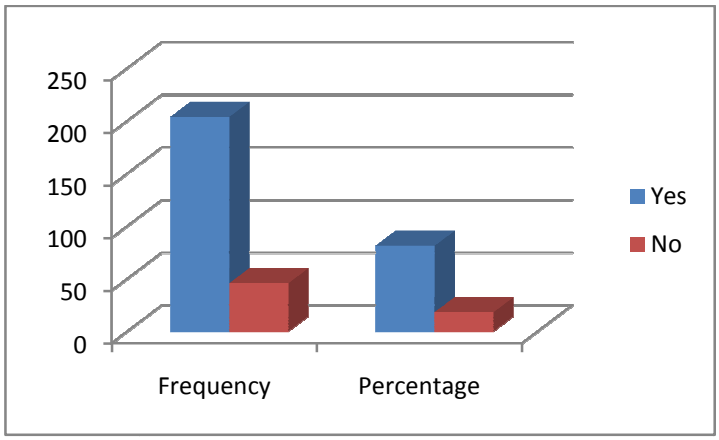
5.2.1.3. Item Three: Studying English a Choice or an Obligation

Q3. Is studying English your choice? Justify your answer, please.

The aim behind this question is to gather information about students' prior interest to learn English as a foreign language. Here are the results:

Figure 38

Studying English, a Choice or an Obligation



The results show that the majority of students (81.6%) voluntarily chose to study English. Their justifications varied on the whole between their love for this language and the realization of their future personal projects which require the mastery of English. Only a minority of forty-six students (18.4%) declare to have been forced in one way or another to pursue these studies. The reasons vary between the parents' choice; the inability to opt for the estimated studies because of the insufficient average of the baccalaureate; and the proximity of the present department to where they live.

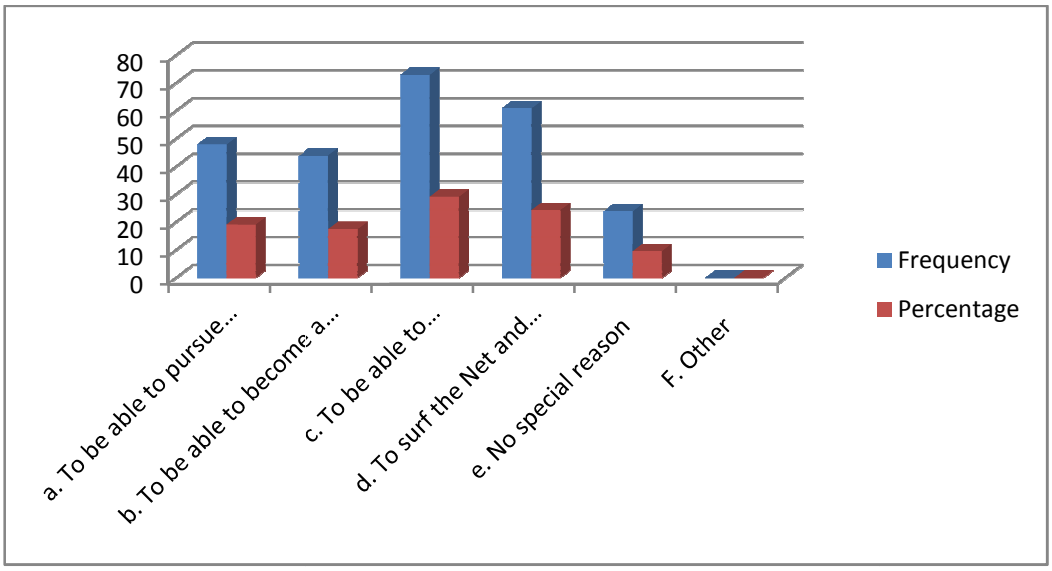
5.2.1.4. Item Four: Reasons behind Studying English

Q4. Why are you studying English?

The aim is to learn about students' aspiration and prospects lying behind their choice to study English. Students were provided with some options but allowed a space to add other reasons. Results are set in the upcoming illustrative diagram:

Figure 39

Reasons behind Studying English



The results show that students' perspectives behind learning English are primarily related to the communicative and universal aspect of the English language (29.2%) which allows interaction with all speakers of this language; Next come the need to surf the net and to travel abroad (24.4%) which respond to the technological and international aspects of English. The willingness of students to pursue higher education in English comes third (19.2%), followed by the hope of becoming a teacher (17.6%); which reflect the intellectual and professional aspects of the English language. Only twenty-four students (9.6%) assumed that they had no particular reason to study English. After verification, we have found that they fall entirely into the category of students who have previously declared that they have been obliged to opt for this course.

5.2.2. Section Two: Students' Experience with the Oral Expression Course

The second section in this questionnaire aims to collect information on students' experience with the oral-expression course in terms of their impressions about the course and

the teacher's method including activities, choice of the topics; the use and the frequency of use of other languages than English both on the part of the teacher and the students; in addition to who speaks the most in such classes. Eleven close-ended questions are designed for this section from the fifth question to the fifteenth (Q5-Q15).

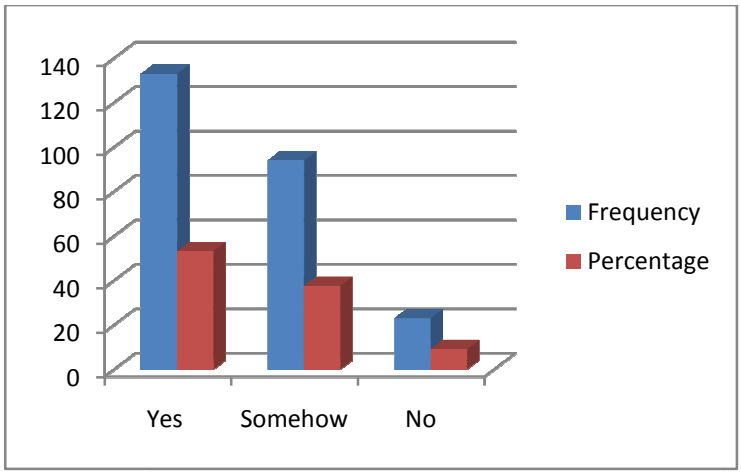
5.2.2.1. Item Five: Students' Impressions of OE Course

Q5. Do you like the oral-expression course?

Students were asked to give their impressions of the oral-expression course. Results are shown in the upcoming table and the column chart, followed by two other tables with their relative pie charts to set students' justification of their answers.

Figure 40

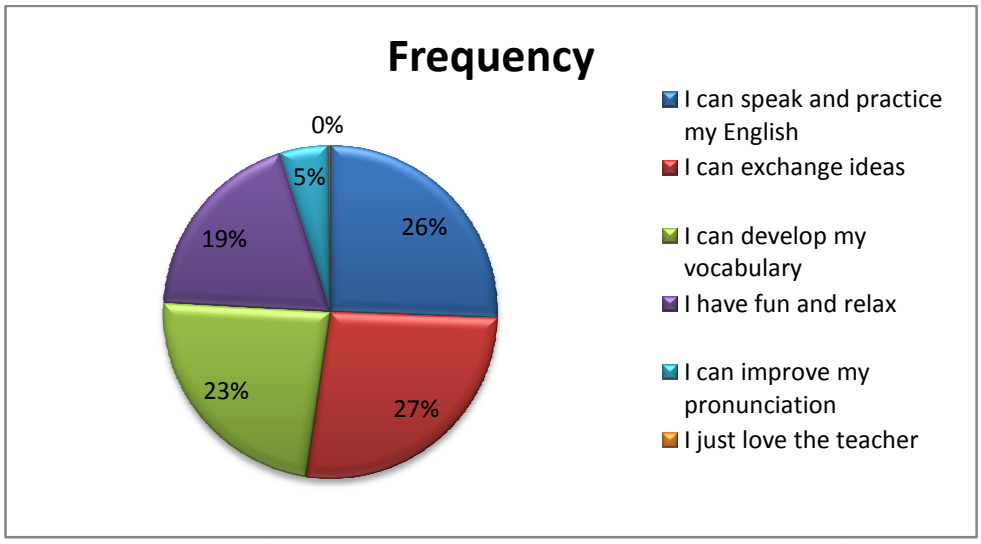
Students' Impressions about OE course



Results show that the majority of students (53.2%) opted for 'yes' meaning that they have a rather positive impression about this course. Their justifications were collected and organized under the following points as shown in the upcoming pie-chart:

Figure 41

Students' Reasons for OE Course Appreciation



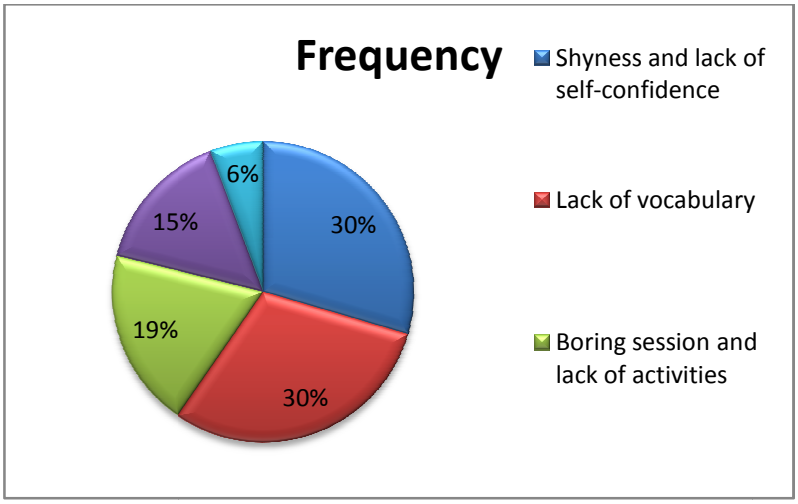
The reasons given by the one hundred thirty-three students, who assumed they like the session of oral-expression course, were analogous and with quite close percentages. This course is for those students a place where they have the opportunity to exchange ideas (27%); to speak and practice their English (26%); develop their vocabulary (23%); to have fun and relax from the busy nature of the other courses (19%); improve their pronunciation (5%). A student justified her attraction to the course because of her love for the teacher.

In general, those students appreciate the oral-expression course because they like to use their ability to express themselves, discuss the different subjects and exchange ideas while enriching their vocabulary. Pronunciation is timidly considered and no one referred to the demands of the immediate communication like the speech speed for instance. But, these results seem to correspond to the type of students who already have a good or even excellent level of English proficiency.

However, when we analysed the answers of the total number of the students (117) who previously expressed hesitation (37.6%) or total reluctance (9.2%) towards this course, we noticed that forty-two out of forty-four male students belong to this category.

Figure 42

Reasons for Students' Reluctance or Aversion to the OE Course



The students' complaints, mainly boys, revolved around innate shyness or that resulting from lack of self-confidence and fear of being embarrassed when they make mistakes (30%); in addition to the severe lack of vocabulary (30%) and, with a low frequency, their weak pronunciation (15%). They also evoked, with great insistence, the boring aspect of these sessions due to the lack of activities and their reticence to take part in the different discussions due to their previously mentioned problems of vocabulary, pronunciation and the low self-confidence that automatically result from blocking while speaking or being corrected all the time. At a lower percentage (6%), those students complained from teachers' lenience to interact with those students who already have a good level of speaking proficiency; the others remain marginalized along the session which generates animosities towards the teacher and those peers and create an 'awkward atmosphere' as mentioned by one of the students.

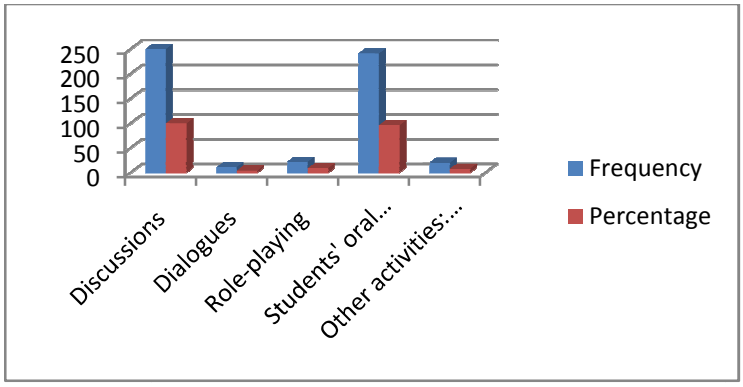
5.2.2.2. Item Six: Students' Experience with Activities in the OE Course.

Q6. What are the activities you generally meet in the oral-expression course?

The answers of the students on the activities that they generally deal with in the oral expression courses are presented in the following diagram:

Figure 43

Students' Experience with Activities in OE Course



As shown in the diagram above, there is one-hundred-percent agreement on the use of discussions as the main activity in the oral-expression courses, in addition to oral presentations (96.4%) of research papers or some short stories they write then present; as explained by students. Dialogues (4.4%) and role-playing (8.8%) are less frequent in these classrooms. To the set of suggested activities, twenty participants added games (8%).

These results correspond to the answers of the teachers shown previously in the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire (see point 6). The students who opted for games have probably been taught by the teacher who previously stated that she used games in her OE classroom.

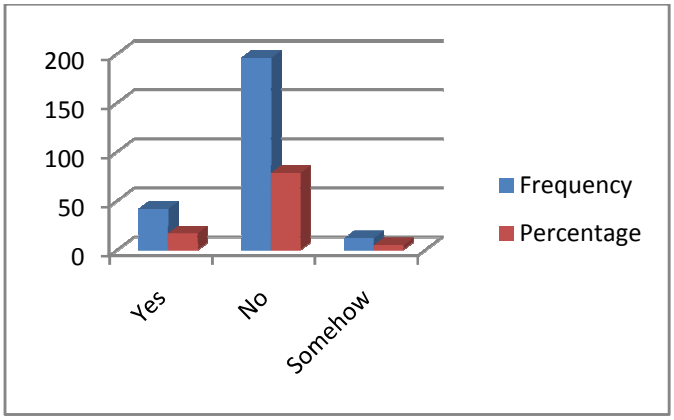
5.2.2.3. Item seven: Students' Satisfaction with the Activities of the OE Course

Q7. Are you satisfied with the activities selected in the previous question (Q6)?

Students were asked to express their opinions on the activities they have the habit to deal with in the meant course followed by a justification of their answers. The answers are shown below as follows:

Figure 44

Students' Satisfaction with the Activities of the OE Course



The students' answers are also meant to furnish information on students' motivation and interest towards the teacher's method. Results show that a great majority of students (78.4%) are not satisfied with the activities used in these classrooms with some few students (4.8%) who seem to have reservations about those activities.

In the main, students have complained about the lack of creativity and the boring nature of these activities, particularly to students suffering from excessive shyness or those struggling with their inability to express themselves easily. The results proved that all the one hundred and seventeen students who previously expressed reluctance towards this course (see item five) are among those who do express reluctance towards these activities. This leads us to conclude that the choice of activities is probably one of the most important reasons behind students' aversion and lack of motivation towards this course.

Only a minority of forty-two students (16.8%) assumed their contentment with the used activities. And when we analysed the previous answers, we found that a great majority of them belong to those who have previously opted for role plays and games. This also fits with teachers' reports on students' lack of motivation towards the used activities (See item seven of students' questionnaire).

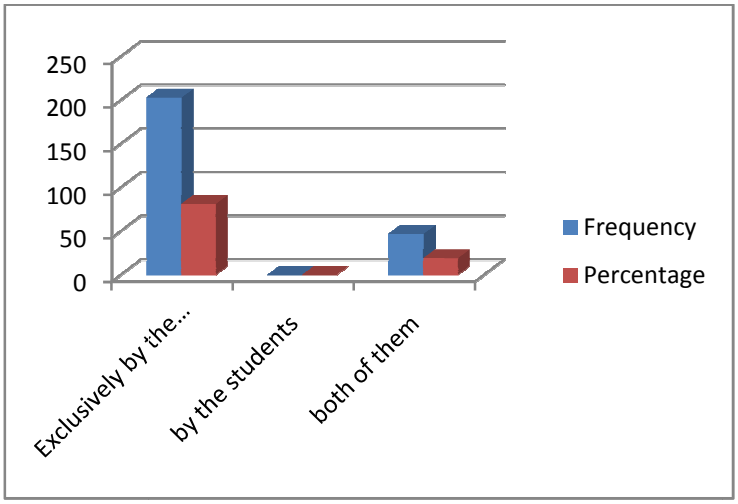
5.2.2.4. Item Eight: The Choice of the Topic

Q8. The topics used in the oral-expression course are chosen exclusively by the teacher; by the students; in collaboration between the teacher and the student?

Students where asked this time to precise whether they take part in the choice of the topics or not. Results are demonstrated below:

Figure 45

The Choice of the Topic



The vast majority of students (81.2%) said that the choice of subject is monopolized by the teachers against a minority (18.8) who confess they share this task with them. No teacher seems to want to cede this mission to the students alone.

5.2.2.5. Item Nine: Students' Use of Extra Languages/Dialects in the OE Course

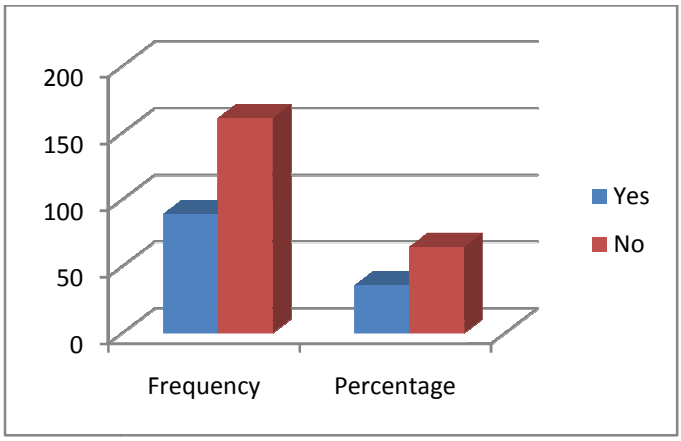
Q9. When speaking, do you use additional languages/dialects besides English to express yourself or compensate for the lack of vocabulary in the oral-expression course?

In order to investigate the likelihood of students seeking refuge in a language other than English to compensate for their lack of vocabulary in the OE course, we asked the question above. The results are illustrated as in Figure 48.

Of the total number of participants, one hundred and sixty-one (64.6%) answered *No*, which means that they do not use languages other than English in these courses; compared to eighty-nine students (35.6%) who admitted to using extra languages as a strategy to compensate for their lack of vocabulary. However, this number represents more than a third (1/3) of the total number, which means that it is significantly large.

Figure 46

Students' Use of Extra Languages/Dialects in the OE Course



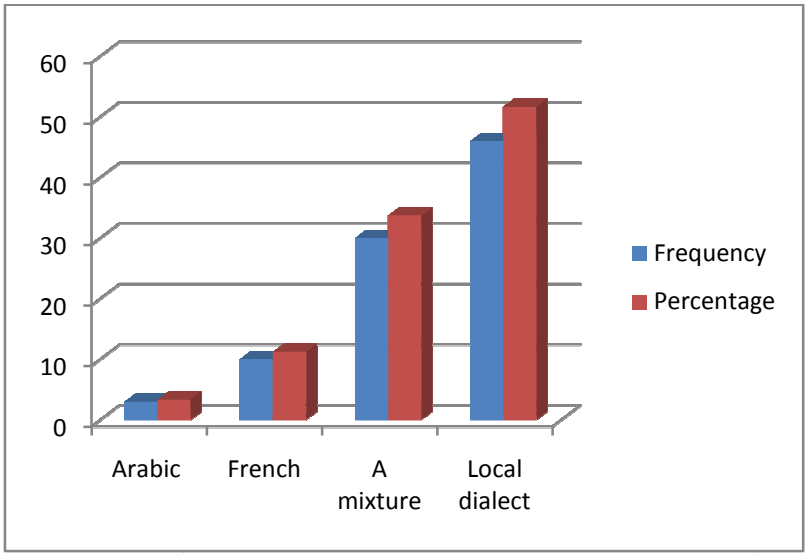
5.2.2.6. Item Ten: The Most Used Extra Language/Dialect by Students

Q10. If you answered 'Yes' to question N°9, which language do you use the most?

This question is only for students who assumed to use languages other than English in the OE course. Results are demonstrated in the diagram as follows:

Figure 47

Students' Most Used Language/Dialect



The local dialect comes first as the most frequently opted for language (51.7%) to compensate for the lack of vocabulary. An important number of those students opted for a mixture of Arabic and French in addition to the local dialect (33.7%); followed by a minority who prefer to seek refuge in the French language (11.2%); and only three students (3.8%) opted for Academic Arabic.

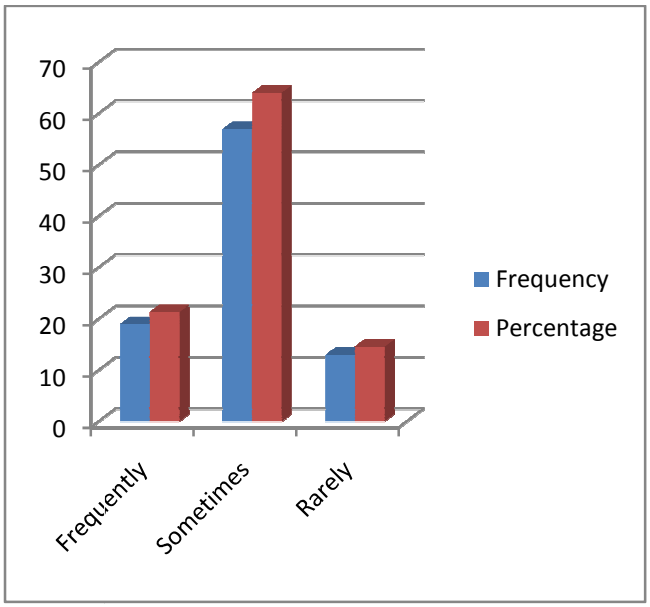
5.2.2.7. Item Eleven: Students' Frequency of Use of the Extra Languages in OE Course

Q11. If you answered 'Yes' to question N°9, how often do you use these other language(s)?

The eighty-nine students, who reported using Arabic or French (or both) to compensate for their oral vocabulary problems, were asked to specify the frequency with which they use the selected language(s).

Figure 48

Students' Frequency of the Extra Languages' Use in OE Course



According to student responses, the majority opt for the previously selected languages with a medium frequency (64.04%), compared to a relatively small number who opt for frequent use (21.35%) and only a minority for rare use (14.61%).

However, by matching these results to those of the previous questions, we found that all of the nineteen students, who assumed a frequent reliance on other languages to fill in their English vocabulary gaps while speaking, are actually using the local dialect.

5.2.2.8. Item Twelve: Teachers' Use of Other Languages than English in the OE Course

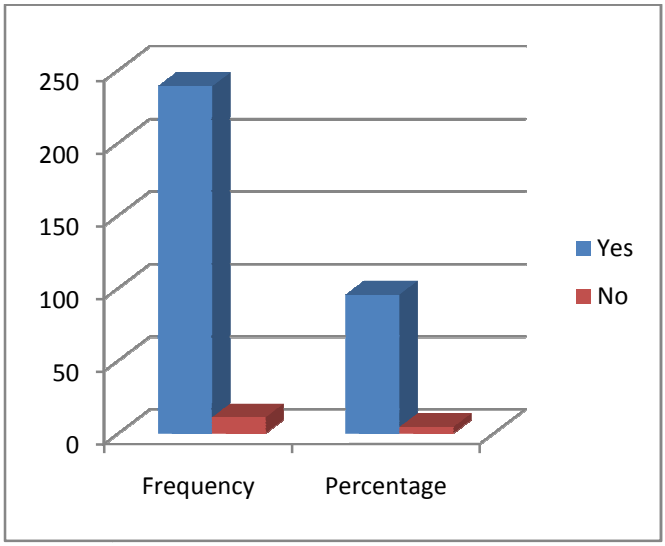
Q12. Does your teacher use a language other than English in explanations or discussions?

This question investigates the likelihood of teachers relying on languages other than English when involved in explanations or discussions on a given topic. In other words, we

aim to inspect the amount of student exposure to English; at least, the teacher's one. The results are displayed in diagram below:

Figure 49

The Use of Other Languages than English in the OE Course



A large majority of students (95.6%) said their OE teachers relied on extra languages in their lessons besides English; against a minority (4.4%) who assumed the opposite.

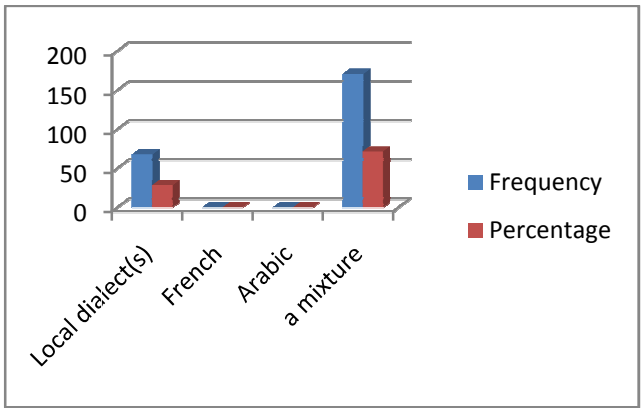
5.2.2.9. Item Thirteen: Students' Reports on the Language Used by Teachers besides English in OE Course

Q13. If you answered 'Yes' to question N°12, which language/dialect does s/he generally use?

Students were asked to precise the language used by their teachers in the meant course. Their answers were as follows:

Figure50

Students' Reports on the Language Used by Teachers besides English in OE



As shown in the diagram above, a great majority of one hundred seventy-one students (71.5%) assumed that their teachers use a mixture of languages including the local dialect, French and Arabic; against sixty-eight (28.5%) who opted for the local dialect.

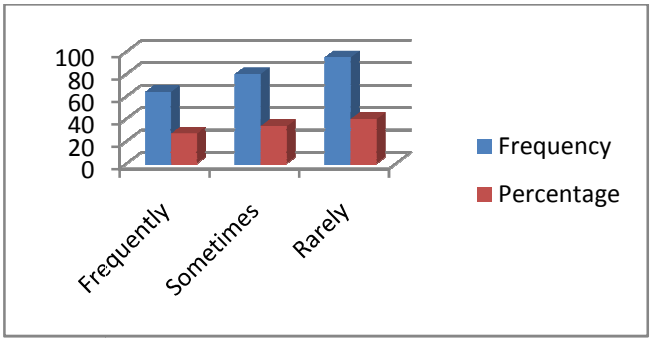
5.2.2.10. Item Fourteen: Student's Reports on Teachers' Frequency of the Other Languages' Use

Q14. If you answered yes to question N°12, please say how often?

Here, students are expected to specify how often their teachers use the extra languages in the OE course. The answers are presented in Figure 53.

Figure 51

Teachers' Frequency of Using Other Languages



Results of this question seem quite close. Of the two hundred thirty-nine students who have ever assumed that their teachers used other languages in the speaking lesson, those who opted for a low frequency seem to be the most numerous (39.7%), followed by those who opted for a medium frequency 'sometimes' (33.5%), and finally those who opted for high frequency (26.8%). These results correspond to teachers' responses on the frequency of use of the meant languages in their classes (see item 10 of the teachers' questionnaires).

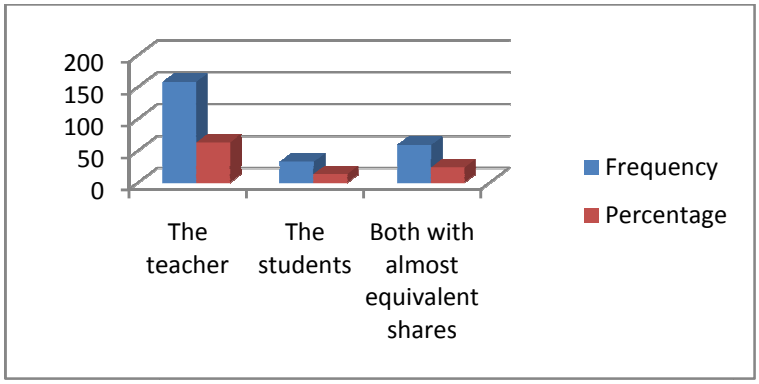
5.2.2.11. Item Fifteen: Students' Reports on Who Speaks the Most in OE Course

Q15. Who speaks the most in the oral expression course?

To collect data on teachers' way of teaching in terms of whether they adopt a teach-centred teaching or a student-centred teaching, students were invited to indicate on who speaks the most in the OE course. Their answers are as illustrated in Figure 54.Also, it seems that these oral expression courses are mostly teacher-centred (63.2%), which leaves students with insufficient space to express themselves in a course predestined to perfect their oral expression. This percentage represents nearly two-thirds (2/3) of the total number of students compared to one-third between those who opted for equivalent shares (23.6%) and a minority who opted for a student-centred classroom (13.2%).

Figure 52

Students' Reports on Who Speaks the Most in OE Course.



These results correspond to those of item 8 since they agree on teachers' penchant for more teacher-centred types of teaching.

5.2.3. Section Three: Students' Experience with the Listening-Speaking Issue

This part of the questionnaire is designed to collect data on students' experience with listening and speaking in the oral-expression course. This includes the statement of their speaking problems, their strategies to correct their mistakes (autonomy) and autonomy in paraphrasing and self-correction; in addition to their experience with the listening instruction and their opinion on the adequacy of the time allocated for the oral-expression course to their needs to develop their speaking skill. Eight mostly closed-ended questions were planned for this section (Q16-Q23).

5.2.3.1. Item Sixteen: Students' Difficulties While Speaking English

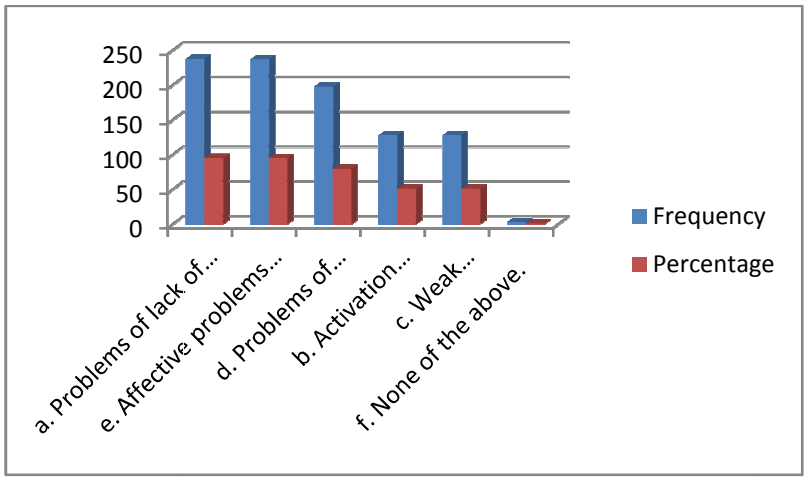
Q16. What are the difficulties you encounter when you speak English?

Students were asked to select among many options the kind of problems they suffer from when they are speaking English including problems of vocabulary and spoken grammar; activation problems; pronunciation; fluency; in addition to affective problems. These options have been reordered in the table according to student responses, from most common to least common. Results are presented in Figure 55.

The students' reactions to this question show that short vocabulary and lack of knowledge of spoken grammar (95.2%); in addition to shyness, lack of self-confidence and hate of being embarrassed when corrected (affective problems) (94.8%), are the problems most claimed by the two hundred and fifty students of this questionnaire, with a difference of one student between the results of the two options. In second place, fluency, as related to speedy and effortless speech (79.2%), seems to have a large share in the intricacies of students with spoken English.

Figure 53

Students' Speaking Difficulties



Problems like the pronunciation difficulties and the low speed in recalling the needed knowledge for immediate speaking (activation of previous knowledge) come in the third position but remain largely considered at an equivalent percentage (51.2%). Only three students among the whole participants assumed having no difficulty regarding the given options; yet, they did not report any other problems. Thus, they are supposed to be quite skilled and have a high level of proficiency in English speaking.

This order corresponds very well to that of students' reasons for their reluctance towards the oral-expression course (see item five).

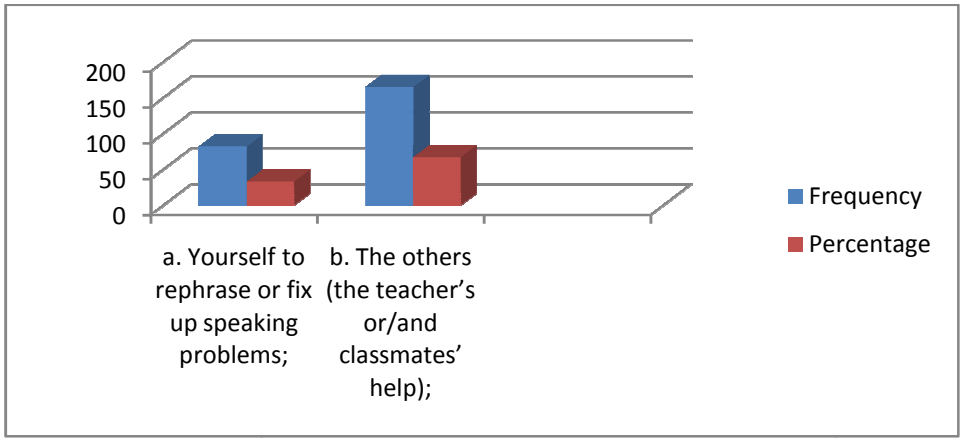
5.2.3.2. Item Seventeen: Students' Regulation of Speaking Problems between autonomy and Reliance on Others

Q17. When you experience the speech difficulty (ies) selected above, do you generally rely on: yourself to rephrase or fix up speaking problems; or on the others (the teacher's or/and classmates' help)?

This question aims to gather data on students' rephrasing and corrections strategies. In other words, the purpose is to know whether those students adopt self-correction or rely on the teacher and/or peers to fill in speech gaps and correct mistakes that may affect the intelligibility of the spoken message. The '*both*' option was not suggested for two reasons: first, because the goal is to know the *most* frequently used strategy by students; and second, because we need precision in student responses, so *both* can be confusing and inaccurate. Results are set in the upcoming figure:

Figure 54

Students' Experience with Self-correction



Student responses to this question prove that a two-thirds majority (66.8%) out of two hundred and forty-seven students (the total number of participants minus the three who previously assumed they had no problem with speech) relies on teachers and/or their peers to correct their mistakes and overcome their speech difficulties. This means that they lack of autonomy since they are unable to relate on themselves and are quite dependent on others in regulating their speech. Only a third of students (33.2%) are actually autonomous and adopt self-regulation and self-correction of mistakes. However, this number remains far from all expectations in relation to the oral-expression course, the development of the speaking skill, and proficiency in the English language in general.

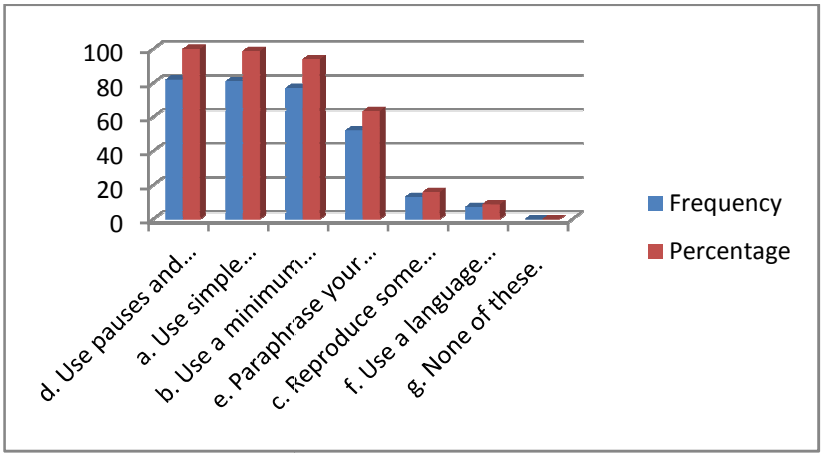
5.2.3.3. Item Eighteen: Autonomous Students' Strategies and the Speaking Difficulties' Compensation

Q18. If you answered "a" to question N° 17, what do you generally do to compensate for your speaking difficulty (ies)?

This question targets only the eighty-two students who assumed to be autonomous in their speaking regulation and correction. The aim is to learn about the different strategies those students use to help themselves surmount the speaking intricacies. The results are listed in order of frequency as shown below:

Figure 55

Autonomous Students' Strategies and Speaking Difficulties' Compensation



Reliance on pauses and fillers (100%) in addition to the use of simple sentences with more repetition and less subordination (98.9%) are ranged first, according to students' answers; followed by the use of a minimum of words (93.9%) to ensure endurance in speech. However, paraphrasing one's words or those of the speaker to gain time to carry on speaking seems moderately supported by students (63.4). Reliance on the use of pre-set chunks is not really used except for some thirteen students (15.8%); this may result from students' ignorance of the efficacy of such a technique to avoid the building of one's sentences which

can be time consuming and the result is not sure. Frequency of dependence on extra languages, particularly the local dialect, to escape speaking deadlocks and preserve fluency, is very timidly supported (8.5%).

The results above indicate that those students have more or less a good level of proficiency in English which leads us to think that they are quite autonomous and have a good level of speaking proficiency.

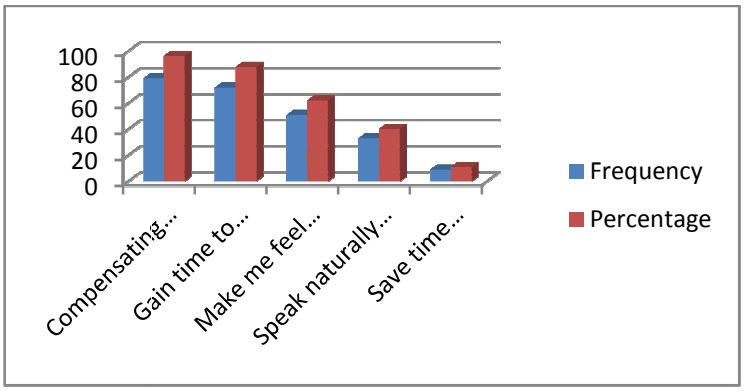
5.2.3.4. Item Nineteen: Students' Opinions on the Usefulness of the Compensation Strategies

Q19. If you answered "a" to question N° 17, how are these strategies useful?

This open-ended question was asked to examine students' awareness of the efficiency of the compensation strategies selected earlier. In other words, we aimed to see if they are using those strategies consciously and purpousfully to regulate their speaking problems. Also, we aimed to understand how may these strategies be useful for them. The question targets only the eighty-two students who rely on themselves to solve their English speaking problems. Students answers were selected, analysed, then ranged in four main categories as shown in the upcoming diagram:

Figure 56

Students' Opinions on the Usefulness of the Compensation Strategies



Almost all the students (96.3%) are aware of the importance of the compensation strategies in helping them surmount any probable shortage in vocabulary or grammar when using rephrasing or paraphrasing, as mentioned in many copies.

Similarly, many students (87.8%) advocate the importance of these strategies in helping them gain time to analyse what is being said (in case of a conversation) and think about what to say as to try to recall vocabulary or any other knowledge necessary to constructs a meaningful answer or a coherent speech in case of discussions and debates.

To feel comfortable and compensate for the affective problems which may result from shyness or lack of competence, many students (62.2%) opt for those strategies mainly the use of simple sentences, fillers and paraphrasing to convey the message, as précised by the majority of those students. Thirty-three students (40.2%) referred to the importance of these strategies to 'just speak as a native does'; one student said.

This is a reference to the natural aspect of speech generally full of pauses and fillers and based essentially on simple sentences, paraphrasing and pre-set phrases and expressions (e.g., phrasal verbs, collocations, idioms and proverbs).

However, only nine students (10.9%) seem to refer the use of those strategies to their efficiency in 'saving time and effort'; as clearly expressed by six of them. This means that they focus on those pre-set constructions of speech especially phrasal verbs, frequent collocations (e.g., set the table, pretty soon, keep quiet, quiet down, it's big deal to ...) and sentence frames (e.g., would you like a ...) in addition to idioms and proverbs.

Overall, results confirm that those students are already aware of their particular problems and are consciously working to regulate their speaking through those strategies.

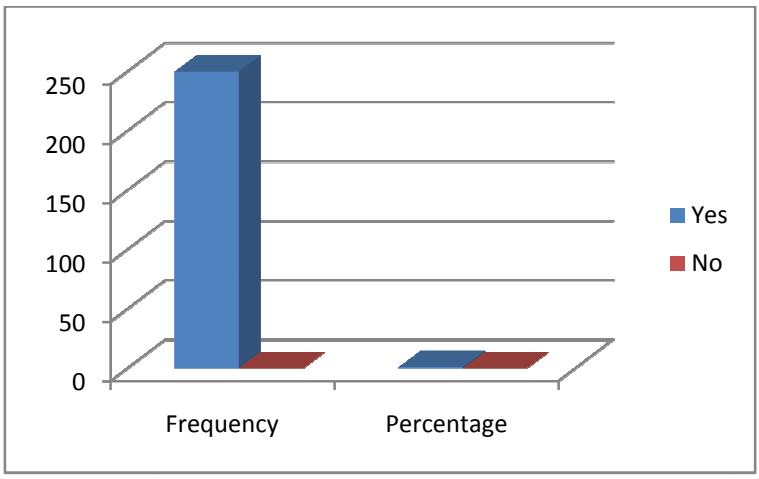
5.2.3.5. Item Twenty: How Students Acquired those Compensation Strategies.

Q20. Have you ever been explicitly taught the above strategies to compensate for your speaking problems?

In order to study how students acquired these strategies, we formulated the present question. In other words, the objective is to know whether these strategies have been explicitly taught to the students or whether they have implicitly developed them through their experience when they encounter difficult situations in on-the-spot speech.

Figure 57

Compensation Strategies: *Taught or Learned Implicitly*



As the diagram show, all students (100%), without exception, assumed that they had never been explicitly taught these strategies to compensate for their speech problems in class.

Relating these findings to the previous ones, we draw two main conclusions. First, students who already enjoy a satisfactory level of English-speaking proficiency develop on their own the ability to cope with their shortages and the difficult demands of the immediate English speaking through the use of the abovementioned strategies. Secondly, there seems to be a tendency to ignore the importance of these strategies on the part of teachers, especially those of oral expression, since no real consideration is given to them. Thus, less autonomous

and weak students are left alone to grapple with their speech problems and seek refuge, as the only solution, in the help of the teacher or their peers.

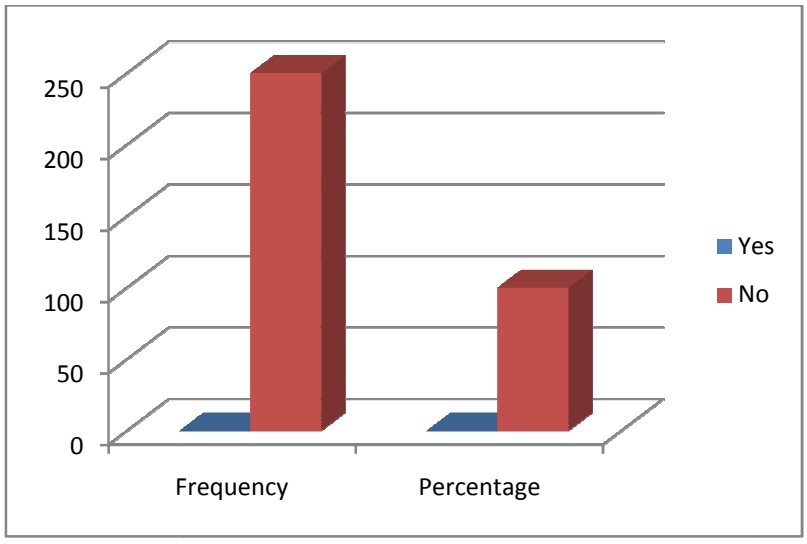
5.2.3.6. Item Twenty-one: Students' Experience with the Listening Instruction in OE Course

Q21. Have you ever experienced an instruction based on listening to the English language (with some related activities) in the oral expression course?

Students were asked to report on their experience with the listening instruction in OE course. Results are set below:

Figure 58

Students' Experience with the Listening Instruction in OE Course.



None of the two hundred and fifty students assumed that they had previously experienced teaching listening in the oral expression course. This corresponds to the teachers' confirmation that they have never addressed this question in their class (see teachers' questionnaire, item twenty).

5.2.3.7. Item Twenty-two: Students' Reports on Teachers' Methods of Teaching Listening in OE Courses

Q22. If you answered "yes" to question N°21, how does your teacher approach (teach) listening?

This question was supposed to enlighten the researcher on the methods adopted by teachers to teach listening in speaking classes. Obviously, this question was completely ignored by the students since they already indicated that they had no experience with this (see the previous item).

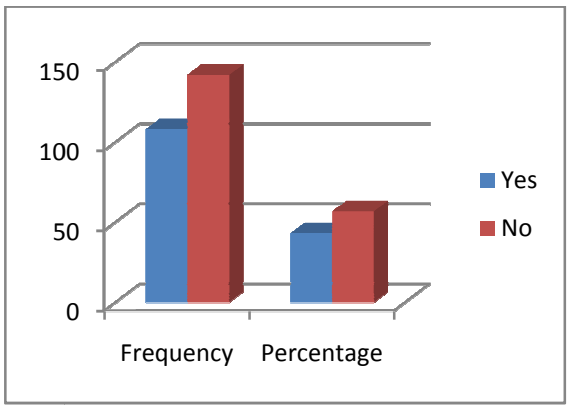
5.2.3.8. Item Twenty-three: Students' Opinions on the Convenience of OE Session's Time with the Development of their EFL Speaking Skill

Q23. Do you think the two sessions (per week) allocated to the oral expression course are enough to develop your English-speaking skill?

The last question of the third section aims to investigate the opinions of students as to whether the two sessions per week devoted to the OE course cover their needs in terms of developing their speaking skills. Results are set in the following diagram:

Figure 59

The Convenience of OE Session's Duration with EFL Speaking Skill Development



As the diagram above illustrates, a large number of students (56.8%) believe that the two sessions per week are insufficient to provide them with the time necessary to deepen their knowledge and develop their English oral fluency, unlike one hundred and eight students (43.2%) who seem quite satisfied. The in-depth analysis of the latter shows that these students, in their majority, are those who have already been presumed to be autonomous and enjoy acceptable or even excellent oral skills.

However, it seems that, on the whole, the students join their teachers in the need to increase the number of oral sessions (see item twenty-two in teachers' questionnaire analyses).

5.2.4. Section Four: Students' Experience with the Use of Authentic Video-extracts as a pedagogical Material in OE Course.

The last section deals with students' impressions about watching videos in general and their use as pedagogical tools in the oral expression in special. Also, we aimed to gather information on students' readiness to deal with these tools and their expectations of their efficiency over their listening and speaking skills. It is consisting of seven questions (Q24-Q30), the majority of which are close-ended.

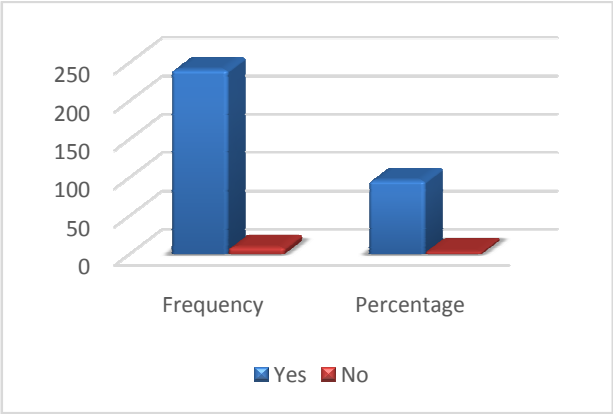
5.2.4.1. Item Twenty-four: Students Impressions of Watching Videos in English

Q24. Do you like watching videos in English?

This question aims to investigate students' impressions on watching videos in English to draw conclusions on their predisposition to adoption in the OE classroom as pedagogical tools. Results are shown below:

Figure 60

Students Impressions' on Watching Videos in English

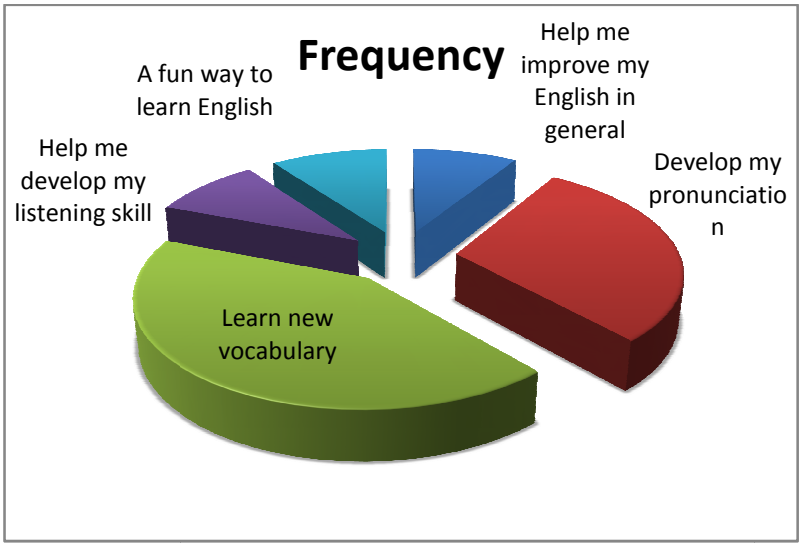


Reactions to this question proved that students have a great tendency to watch videos in English. An overwhelming majority of two hundred forty-one (96.4%) opted for 'yes' against only nine students (3.6%) who seem not to appreciate watching videos in English.

Students were asked to justify their choice. Their answers were gathered and ranged as shown in Figure 61.

Figure 61

Students Justifications for Watching English Videos Appreciation

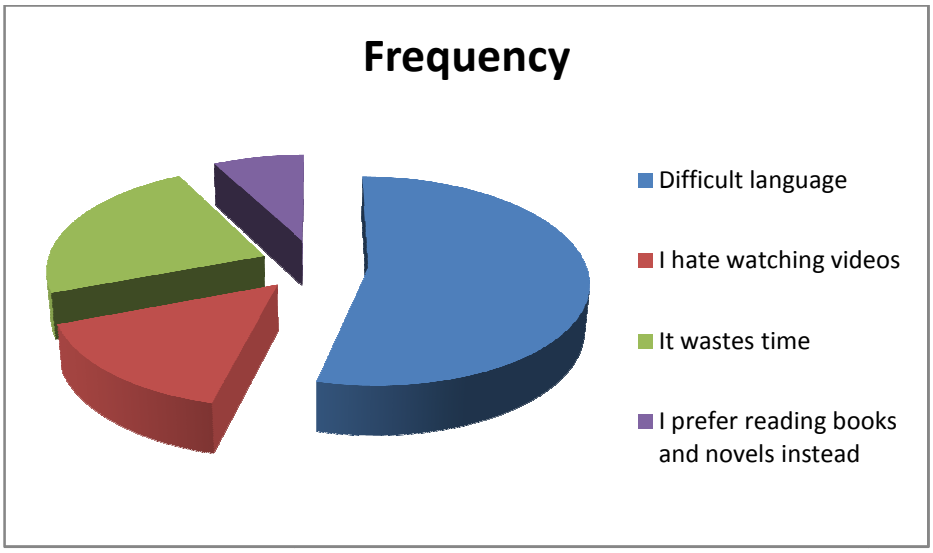


As illustrated in the pie chart above, Among the two hundred and forty-one students who opted for 'yes', many believe that watching videos in English affords them, above all, with new vocabulary (97.5%) and helps them develop their pronunciation (68.04%).

Some students related watching videos in English to the improvement of Their English in general (20.33%), others to the development of their listening skill (21.16%). Watching videos in English is also seen as an entertaining way to learn this foreign language (22.82%). However, no student mentioned the cultural aspect that these means can provide through various scenes and images.

Figure 62

Students Justifications for their Reluctance to Watch Videos in English



Out of nine, seven students do not enjoy watching the targeted videos due to the difficulties they face in understanding natural English as spoken by native speakers (77.77%); three assumes this activity to waste time (33.33%); two students noted that they simply hate watching videos (22.22%); and a female student who said she prefers reading books and novels to watching movies on video (11.11%).

With the exception of these nine students, the introduction of videos in English seems to suit the vast majority. This is likely due to them being 'Gen Zers'; natives of the digital and online worlds (Seemiller & Grace, 2016).

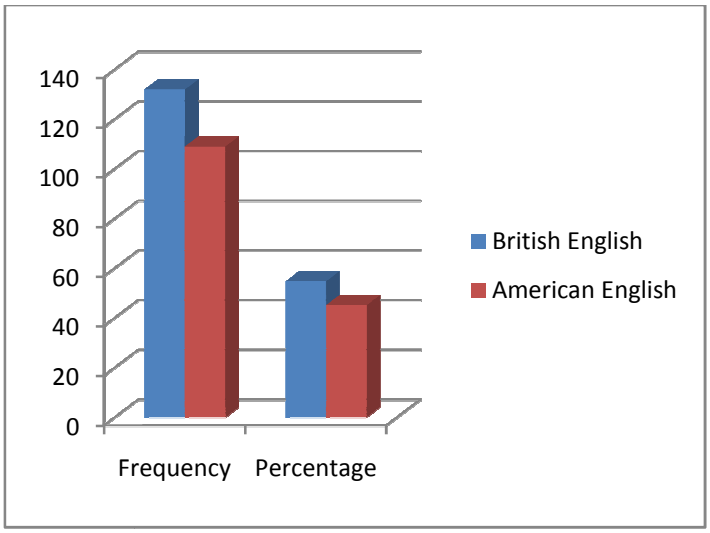
5.2.4.2. Item Twenty-five: Students' Most Favourable English

Q25. If you answered 'yes' to the previous question, which English do you prefer the most?

In order to collect data on students' inclinations to watch videos in British or American English, we asked this question. Obviously, it only targets the two hundred and forty-one students who previously claimed to be fans of watching videos in English. These students were also asked to justify their choices. Results are shown below:

Figure 63

Students' Most Favourable English



This question was provided with two options: 'British English' and 'American English'. And to be able to collect meaningful data, we avoided adding the option *both* to avoid that the students tend to rush the answer and oblige them, in certain measure, to choose between the two varieties the one that suits them best.

Results show that students are shared between the two options: one hundred and thirty-nine students opted for British English (54.8%) against one hundred and nine (45.2%) opted for American English. The latter, even if not forming the majority, remain relatively numerous and need to be widely considered.

Students' justifications of their choice of watching videos in British English are based mainly, in addition of being a matter of preference, on their will to ameliorate their English proficiency in general, and their listening and speaking in special.

At the opposite, those who opted for American English, again beyond being a matter of preference, said they found this variety easier and matched better at their actual skill level; in addition to the wide availability of films diffused in American English videos compared to British ones. This is probably the result of Hollywood's invasion of the world's screens; television and internet included

5.2.4.3. Item Twenty-six: Students' Experience with Watching Videos in the Oral-expression Courses

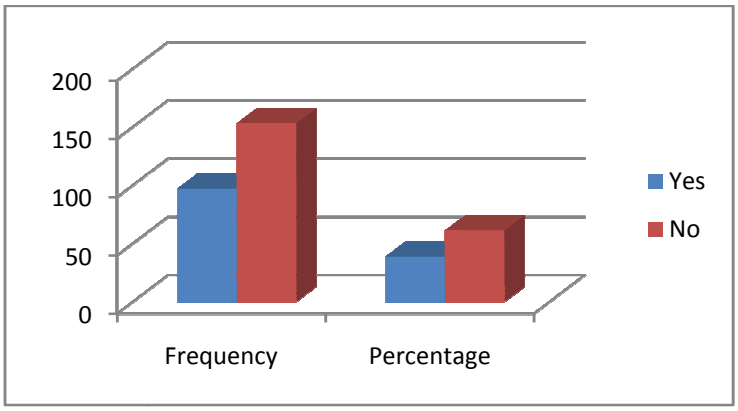
Q26. Have you ever experienced working with videos in Oral expression courses?

This question is supposed to help the researcher gather data on whether students have already experienced watching videos in the OE course. Results are set in Figure 66.

According to the answers, a majority of one hundred and fifty-three students (61.2%) answered no meaning that they do not have the habit to work with such means in the oral-expression course; against ninety-seven (38.8%) who admit being acquainted with watching videos in the meant courses.

Figure 64

Students' Experience with Watching Videos in OE Courses



These results correspond with the low percentage of the teachers (25%) who previously assumed working with videos in the OE classrooms.

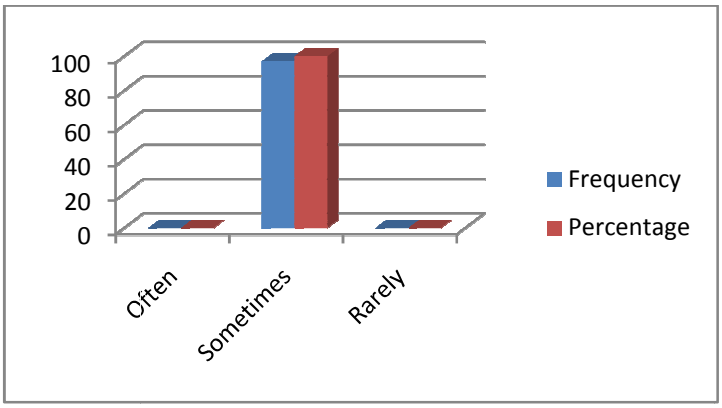
5.2.4.4. **Item Twenty-seven: Frequency of Exposure to Video Extracts in OE Courses**

Q27. If you answered "Yes" to question 26, at what frequency?

The ninety-seven students, who assumed having the habit to deal with videos in the OE course, are asked to precise the frequency of their exposure. Results are set below in the diagram bellow:

Figure 65

*Frequency of Exposure to Video Extracts in OE Courses***.**



All the ninety-seven targeted (100%) students reported that their exposure is limited to a medium frequency which matches with their teachers' previous answers when they unanimously opted for 'sometimes' to answer the question about the frequency of the use of video extracts in their classrooms. However, this frequency remains under expectations since it does not match with students' need to be exposed to the natural English language to be able to surmount their numerous speaking difficulties and develop their speaking skills.

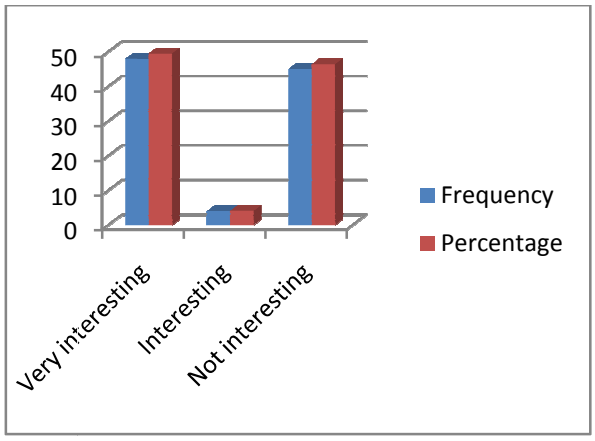
5.2.4.5. Item Twenty-eight: Students' Opinions on the Use of Videos in English in OE Course

Q28. If you answered "Yes" to question 26, how do you find the use of those videos in these courses?

The same ninety-seven students who were solicited in the previous question are this time asked to give their opinions about their experience with watching videos in English in the OE course. They were afforded with three options and asked to select one of them before justifying their choice. Results are presented below:

Figure 66

Students' Opinions on the Use of English Videos in OECourse



As demonstrated above, the percentage of students who rated the experience of watching videos in the speaking class as very interesting (49.5%) is close to those who find it not at all interesting (46, 4%); with only four students finding the experience just interesting (4.1%). Albeit, if we join the results of those who admit that this experience is generally satisfactory (interesting and very interesting), we obtain (53.6%) against those (46.4%) who are not satisfied with such an experience.

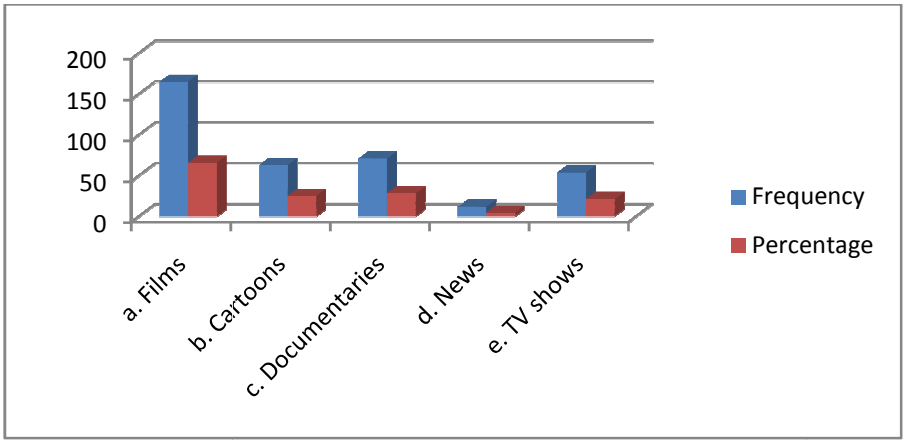
The students, who gave a negative review, referred to the difficult language of the chosen videos. Others claimed the boring aspect of such sessions which corresponded either to the absence of activities or to the choice of the content of the video itself. The long exposure to such videos to the detriment of their speaking was also denounced by some of the participants since it prevents them from expressing themselves as they are supposed to in the speaking course.

5.2.4.6. Item Twenty-nine: Types of Video Extracts Preferred by Students in OE

Q29. If given the choice, what type of video extracts would you like to watch during the oral-expression course?

Figure 67

Types of Video Extracts Preferred by Students



This question was oriented to all the students of the sample. The goal is to learn about their preferences of the type of videos they would like to use in the oral-expression course. They were supposed to choose among: films cartoons, documentaries, news, TV shows; and precise if other types of videos.

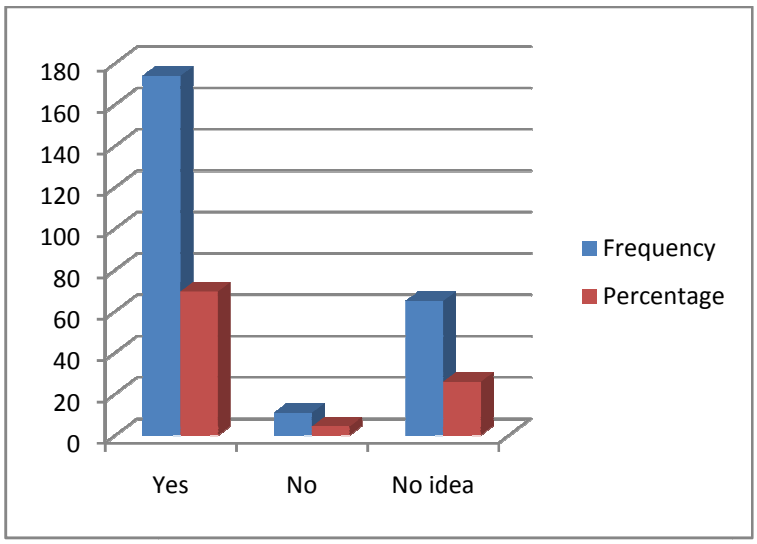
As clearly shown in the diagram above, movies are the most frequently selected (66%) followed by documentaries (28.4%); cartoons (25.2%); and TV shows (21.6%). Only a handful of students out of a total of two hundred and fifty participants opted for news (4.8%).

5.2.4.7. Item Thirty: Students' Perceptions of the Potential Benefits of Listening-based Instruction Using Video Extracts on their English-Speaking Skills

1. **Q30.**Do you think that introducing listening instruction in the oral-expression course based on short video extracts can be beneficial in any way to developing your English skill?

Figure 68

Students' Perceptions of the Listening-based Instruction on their English-Speaking Skills



The last question aims to collect information that reveals their ideas on the introduction of listening-based teaching using short selected video extracts on the development of their English-speaking skills. The aim, then, is not to draw from their previous experience in the oral-expression course but to gather data on their perceptions of how such teaching could be beneficial for their speaking competencies. We also seek to measure their predisposition to share such a learning experience. Results are set in Figure 70 above.

Results seem promising since a majority of one hundred and seventy-four students (69.6%) think this method to be beneficial on their English-speaking skill against eleven (4.4%) who think the opposite. Reasons behind their opposition lie mainly behind their fear this listening instruction changes the nature of the oral-expression course and prevent them from expressing themselves and practicing their English language. Others attribute this to their previous dissatisfaction with the introduction of videos in the targeted courses. However, a good proportion of students (26%) does not seem to have a clear idea on the issue and, therefore, cannot express their support or opposition to the suggested method.

5.2.5. The Students' Questionnaire Results Summary

In fact, the questionnaire, designed for the two hundred and fifty second-year students of the English Department University of Batna 2, was of invaluable help in the researchers' conception of an overview of how the oral expression courses are held, in general, and what students' preoccupation and problems are, in relation to the development of the English-speaking competence. For the most part, the students treated each question with the desired care and provided intelligible justifications, sometimes even with unpredictable precision.

Made up of more than two-thirds of females, the students of the present questionnaire belong to a fairly young age group. More precisely, they fit in their majority to a generation

dubbed Z or the 'Gen Z' or 'Gen Zers'. This includes students born between 1997 and 2012, characterised by (1) being natives to the digital and online worlds, (2) shared between a virtual and physical reality, and (3) may be even technologically savvier than the Millennials (Seemiller & Grace, 2016, pp. 4-7). This means that those students are quite familiar with the screen and the internet in addition to the manipulation of digital devices. Also, this age bracket is famous for its addiction to watching films and videos on YouTube which has shown promise for their readiness to seriously answer the thirty questions and provide help for the researcher to understand different points related to the present investigation.

Regarding the choice of students to pursue studies in English, the majority confirms that it is the result of a personal choice. This was very helpful in drawing conclusions about students' prior interest in learning English as a foreign language. More precisely, it was important to collect information on students' intrinsic motivation or "the inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire" (Brown, 1987, p. 114) that can help them keep interested to the end by investing time and effort to reach the intended goal.

Moreover, findings show that the oral expression course is a space for students who already have a good level in speaking proficiency to shine and show off what they can do. They like practicing their speaking, exchanging ideas with the teacher and peers while discussing the different topics. However, the same course seems like a nightmare for the less qualified, even a space where they can sink deeper into their problems. Their pronunciation problems, in addition to shyness and hate of being embarrassed in front of the others, all lead them to withdraw leaving even more space for the other more professionals to impose themselves. These results correspond to the answers of the teachers shown previously in the analysis of the relevant questionnaire.

In the same way, when asked about the activities generally encountered in the oral expression course, the students' reports correspond perfectly to those previously provided by the teachers. Discussions and oral presentations of research papers are the most cited ones. More precisely, both reports converge on students' low motivation towards these activities on the grounds that they are boring and lack creativity. Similarly, it was attested that the choice of activities is primordial and responsible for students' attitudes about the course in general and their willingness to learn and interact along the session.

In addition, and with regard to the choice of the topic, students report that teachers generally decide alone which subjects to cover in the OE course. Only a minority declared sharing this task with their teachers. Therefore, we conclude that teachers seem to embrace the so-called teacher-centred teaching instead, ignoring the importance of sharing, why not ceding a part of this task to students to enhance their motivation and interest. Consequently, when relating these findings to the teachers' questionnaire, we found that only one in eight teachers associated the lack of students' motivation to the choice of the topic. These observations are at the origin of our decision to devote part of the first session of the experiment to collecting the suggestions of the students on the topics that they would like to deal with throughout the experimentation.

Similarly, when asked to report on who speaks the most in these classrooms, a large majority of students agreed to rank teachers first, proving that the latter tend to rely on the teacher-centred teaching. Yet, this seems odd in a classroom intended primarily for students to practice their oral English.

Additionally, it is obvious that students need moderate and good-quality exposure to English, apart from the teachers' one, to recover from the lack of fluency in speaking, in general, and insufficient vocabulary, in particular. But, despite evidence that teachers

monopolize the most conversation in the classroom, they still cannot provide the sufficient and effective exposure to English that students need and are normally expected to meet in such classes. This is mainly due to the relatively frequent use of languages other than English in OE courses. Indeed, being a model for students, teachers' overuse of any intrusive language, even at a moderate frequency, can incite to bad habits, and leave the door wide open for students to opt for these languages whenever they are in a difficult situation or must compensate for their lack of vocabulary. In other words, it can make students, particularly low-level ones, lazy and may further weaken their ability to speak and prevent them from activating the vocabulary they already know.

Proof of this is probably the relatively large number of students (1/3) who admitted to relying on additional languages, especially the local dialect, to fill in their vocabulary gaps while speaking. Given this choice, the students will rather lean towards the easy solution of saying the word in the dialect, for example, to incite the generous help from the teacher or the skilful peers. Well-established exposure to native British English based on well-structured listening and followed by sufficient time to activate (speak) what has been learned can, therefore, support students' weak speaking skills.

Furthermore, findings demonstrated that, first and foremost, students interpreted their English speech handicaps as lack of vocabulary and lack of mastery of spoken grammar in addition to problems with fluency. To this they added affective problems, pronunciation and the incapacity to cope with the speedy nature of the English language and the demands of immediate conversation: very little time is allowed to recall the words and utter them properly.

Also, the great majority of them avowed relying on their teacher or peers to fill in the speaking gaps and compensate for their lack of proficiency. This category of students is

unable to regulate their problems on their own since they ignore how to do so. And given that they have never been taught compensation strategies to cope with their speaking problems, have never experienced listening to natives in a structured session; and unfortunately have a weak level of proficiency that do not allow them the self-development of those strategies; so, those students only find refuge in the competencies of others.

Conversely, skilful students show great autonomy since they are able to use different compensation strategies to cope with the difficulties they may encounter when involved in a conversation in English or a long speech while discussing a given topic. The two sessions per week seem quite sufficient for the practice of their oral capacities. Alas, only a few students are autonomous, the rest really need serious reflection on the part of teachers to help them get rid of their complexes and develop their oral fluency to reach their 'professional' peers. This can be achieved not only by teaching these compensation strategies in the classic way using a board and pen, but, even better, through short structured listening sessions based on authentic video extracts to give students the opportunity to experience the natural English, practiced by its native speakers.

Moreover, results showed that a great majority of students avowed being funs of watching videos in English. This is not surprising, since they belong to the abovementioned 'Gen Z' generation characterised by a heavy digital and online acquaintance. Yet, they seem scattered between watching videos in British and American English varieties. Respectively, if the first are quite conscious of the effectiveness of these British talking videos over the acquisition of an LMD in the *conventional* English decided by the decision holders for such settings; the second are quite influenced by the Hollywood invasion of the world's screens both via the net and television. In addition to the influence exercised over the lifestyle and ideology of the audience' cultures, Hollywood films have a considerable impact on the spread of American English over any other languages; British English included. In this regard, it is

seen as a means to disseminate language and culture (Llerena & Hurtado, 2018). It is also regarded as a double-edged sword since it provides the elements that help the achievement of the said globalization but helps, above all, the promotion of the American culture, including the language, leading to the disappearance of other national and local cultures (Maisuwong, 2012, pp. 1-7). Consequently, it is no surprise that the majority of students opt for films when asked what kind of video extracts they would like most in the oral-expression class.

Additionally, when it comes to students' experience with English videos in the speaking class, only a minority assume they have been exposed to these videos as teaching tools, and only a handful seem to enjoy the experience. The reasons lie behind the difficult language of the videos used in addition to the boring aspect of the session resulting from the lack, or even the absence, of activities; discomfort with content; and the long exposure that prevents students from practicing their English as they are supposed to in these classes.

Crossing these results with the general tendency of students to watch videos in English, we can deduce that the problem lies in the length and content of the videos in addition to the way they are presented. In other words, students only support viewing videos in their speaking lessons if three conditions are met: first, the brevity and purposefulness of these teaching tools to avoid long tedious viewings; second, the content convenience with their skill level and preferences; and, third, if their use is not intrusive preventing them from taking the time to express themselves in English. Moreover, they must be accompanied by activities in order to liven up the course and help students increase their chances to develop their ability to speak English.

For all the previous reasons, the introduction of listening instruction based on well-selected short video extracts in the oral-expression course is expected to provide solutions to the above-mentioned concerns and help students overcome their lack of English-speaking

proficiency; a view that has proven to be broadly endorsed, so far, according to the student perception survey.

Conclusion

All in all, processing of questionnaires for teachers and students has been of great help in learning about the experiences of both oral-expression partners and understanding both their concerns and aspirations for better teaching-learning situations. The answers of the students corresponded in all cases to those of their teachers, which prove that the questions were answered with real sincerity and precision on both sides. Reasons for students' lack of motivation, lack of autonomy, and weak speaking skills are for a large part related to how the oral-expression courses are held. The absence of structured teaching which accompanies students in their need to speak English effectively and autonomously as closely as possible to that of natives and provides conditions quite similar to those that can be encountered in a real situation; are in fact among the main reasons for students' poor performance in English. In addition, the dull nature of these courses based, for the most part, on discussions, unstructured oral presentations, absence of educational tools, and lack of activities, are also part of these reasons.

Also, besides the lack of vocabulary and mastery of the spoken grammar, many students are victims of affective problems including shyness and lack of self-confidence which inevitably lead to a serious lack of autonomy, since they show inability to self-regulate their speaking problems and generally opt for what they believe the shortest and safest way: the teacher's and competent peers' help. Hence, the present experiment is an attempt to address all the concerns mentioned above through the introduction of the suggested listening instruction based on authentic video extracts in the oral-expression course.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to highlight the experiment's findings in terms of the progression of the twenty sample students' speaking skills before and after the treatment was introduced. This treatment entails implementing an instruction based on listening and short video extracts, provided with related activities, to support students' speaking skills in the oral expression course. To put it another way, the quantitative data collected via observation grids during both the pre-experimental (listening-free) and experimental (listening-based) phases in relation to the five selected indicators (grammar and vocabulary; discourse management; pronunciation; interactive communication; and self-correction) will be analysed and compared to determine whether the treatment provided had any effect on students' speaking skills.

Two statistical methods are used for this: the Paired t-Test and the computer statistical program SPSS. On the one hand, the correlated t-Test is used to see if there is statistical evidence that the mean difference between the dubbed listening-free (pre-experimental) and listening-based (experimental) stages is significantly different from zero. The SPSS programme, on the other hand, is used to perform all calculations, simplify data comparison, and facilitate the creation of various related tables and diagrams.

6.1. Presentation of the Observation Data

Considered essentially as a bank of data collection method (Cowie, 2009, p. 166), observation results in the present research are divided into two main groups according to the two phases of the experimentation: the listening-free and listening-based stages.

The twenty students' speaking competencies were subjected to scrupulous observations before and after the meant treatment in terms of their performance in: grammar and vocabulary; discourse management, pronunciation, interactive communication, and self-

correction. Each student is allocated a mark according to each of the abovementioned indicators, ranked in an ordinal way as follows: the null performance (0), low performance (1), fair performance (2), good performance (3), to the very high performance (4). The null performance refers to the type of students' passive behaviour or reluctance to participate in the different suggested activities. At the end of each session, every student was assigned a mark (grade) which represents the mean of his/her performance according to these five indicators.

Accordingly, the same procedure is undergone throughout the whole sessions of the pre-experimental and the experimental stages. Results are compared and analysed to check the accuracy or inaccuracy of the present research hypothesis.

6.1.1. Presentation of the Observation Data in the Listening-free Stage (Pre-experimental)

In what follows, a detailed description of the information gathered by observing students' reactions to the thirteen sessions of the listening-free stage (First Stage) before the treatment.

6.1.1.1. First and Second Sessions' Observation Data

Here are the illustrative tables of the observation grid for the first and second sessions of the listening-free stage.

Table 20

Observation Grid of the Listening-free Stage' First Session

STAGE: Listening-free	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 01
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1		X					X						X				X				X					05
S2	X					X					X					X					X					00
S3				X				X						X				X					X			12
S4			X					X					X					X					X			10
S5		X					X					X					X					X				05
S6			X					X					X					X				X				09
S7				X				X						X				X					X			12
S8	X					X					X					X					X					00
S9			X				X					X					X				X					05
S10			X					X					X				X				X					07
S11		X					X					X					X				X					04
S12			X				X					X					X					X				06
S13			X					X						X				X					X			11
S14	X					X					X					X					X					00
S15			X				X					X					X					X				06
S16			X				X						X				X					X				07
S17	X					X					X					X					X					00
S18				X				X						X				X					X			12
S19			X				X					X					X					X				06
S20		X					X						X				X					X				06
Total	31					23					30					22					17					123
Average	1.55					1.15					1.5					1.1					0.85					6.15

Table 21

Observation Grid of the Listening-free Stage Second Session

STAGE: Listening-free	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 02
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1		X					X						X				X					X				06
S2		X					X					X					X				X					04
S3				X				X						X				X					X			12
S4			X					X					X					X					X			10
S5		X					X					X					X					X				05
S6			X					X					X					X				X				09
S7				X				X						X				X					X			12
S8		X					X					X				X					X					03
S9			X				X					X					X					X				06
S10			X					X					X				X				X					07
S11		X					X					X					X				X					04
S12			X				X					X					X					X				06
S13			X					X						X				X					X			11
S14	X					X					X					X					X					00
S15			X				X					X					X					X				06
S16			X				X						X				X					X				07
S17		X					X					X				X					X					03
S18				X				X						X				X					X			12
S19			X					X				X					X					X				07
S20		X					X						X				X					X				06
Total	34					27					33					23					19					136
Average	1.7					1.35					1.65					1.15					0.95					6.8

As demonstrated in the observation grid above (table20), students' reactions to the first session of the listening-free stage were not quite satisfactory. After being exposed to the related short excerpt, they were asked to participate in an activity based on constructing a conversation about advising a thief (at each time a chosen student) to do and avoid doing certain actions. The results show that with the exception of four students (S3, S7, S13, and S18) who showed positive attitudes towards the subject, the activity, and the session in general; the majority were very quiet (ranging from reluctant to very reluctant) and seemed withdrawn from whatever was going on in the course. Among the latter, four other students did not say a word throughout the session despite the teacher's efforts to invite them to take part in the discussion (S2, S8, S14, and S17); which explain their null grades as clearly shown in the above observation grids.

Along the session the researcher was quite attentive to students' behaviours, even the slightest reactions as smiles, nods and chattering; every move is significant and needs consideration. At the very beginning, students were invited to choose their seats which they would keep throughout the sessions. And to allow herself the opportunity to catch up if she ever forgets to take notes or ignores a student, she took panoramic photos of the whole class so that she could come back to these photos when needed to, especially since all the participants are still considered new faces not yet familiarized.

Besides, in terms of the averages scored in each indicator, all show low results without exception. They range from grammar and vocabulary (1.55) in the first position; pronunciation (1.5) in the second, discourse management (1.15) in the third; interactive communication (1.1) in the fourth; and self-correction (0.85) as the less mastered aspect among the four factors which determines the students' speaking skill (see Table 22).

Table 22

First Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 1
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	0	05
S2	0	0	0	0	0	00
S3	3	2	3	2	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	2	1	09
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	0	0	0	0	0	00
S9	2	1	1	1	0	05
S10	2	2	2	1	0	07
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	0	0	0	0	0	00
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	0	0	0	0	0	00
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	1	1	1	1	06
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	31	23	30	22	17	123
Average	1.55	1.15	1.5	1.1	0.85	6.15

Table 23

Second Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 2
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	1	06
S2	1	1	1	1	0	04
S3	3	2	3	2	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	2	1	09
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	1	1	1	0	0	03
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	2	1	0	07
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	0	0	0	0	0	00
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	34	27	33	23	19	136
Average	1.7	1.35	1.65	1.15	0.95	6.8

This means that, despite the already cited good students, the majority have serious problems in expressing themselves (in this case advising the others) especially in terms of interactive communication as to exchange information, and discourse management as to express their ideas using a cohesive and connected speech. Even worse is their capacity to regulate their speech when the teacher makes the hand gesture indicating that something is incorrect and impairs the message's clarity requiring the students to rephrase their utterances. Students almost always ask the teacher and their peers for assistance while remaining silent, which demonstrates a very low level of autonomy on their behalf. Additionally, reluctant students who received a score of 0 on observation would simply be shy, lack confidence, or possibly have extremely low levels that prevent them from taking the initiative to speak and participate in a conversation. However, it is still too early to pinpoint the precise causes of such a negative response.

The second session's main focus was a conversation simulation based on a given statement, as well as the use of some English speech acts to express apology in English. Students were required to create a phone conversation with an agent from an online sales company who sent a product that was not requested by mistake, using appropriate vocabulary and English expressions to apologise.

This time, the students were more motivated and showed a better interest in the subject and the associated activity than in the previous session. However, the results remained below the expected estimates. This is clearly demonstrated in the related table (See table 23) of the summary of the observation grid related to the second session.

In all, a tiny progress was remarked in the results of only six students. For the first and ninth students (S1, S9), we remarked a small effort in terms of self-regulation since attempts were made on the part of these students to correct their mistakes at the signal of the teacher,

and without. For the eighth and seventeenth students (S8, S17) progress was mainly shown in the three first factors of the observation grid. These students were reticent during the first session, but this time they made an effort to get into the classroom atmosphere; however, they remained weak in terms of interactive communication and relied heavily on the teacher's and the best students' assistance. A slight improvement in all five factors was recorded with the second student (S2); however, the nineteenth one (S19) showed improvement only in terms of producing more coherent sentences compared to the first session.

The analysis of these results leads us to believe that this progress may be due to the familiarisation process that begins to develop in students, particularly those who are shy and find it difficult to integrate from the first contact with teacher and peers, despite the fact that they do not necessarily know each other. It could also be a reaction to the second session's topic and/or the related activity.

6.1.1.2. Third and Forth Sessions' Observation Data

The third course concentrated on the simulation of a given dialogue provided by the related script, as well as the use of the common English word *sorry* to express different situations. The researcher, as usual, played the video extract once before dividing the students into small groups and asking them to try to simulate the dialogue using the provided script. They were intended to use the word sorry as often as possible to express misunderstanding, astonishment, and apology. The following is a presentation of students' results from the third and fourth observation grids.

Except for a slight improvement in the fourteenth student's (S14) speaking performance in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, there was no significant difference between students' reactions in the second lesson.

Table 24

Third Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 3
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	1	06
S2	1	1	1	1	0	04
S3	3	2	3	2	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	2	1	09
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	1	1	1	0	0	03
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	2	1	0	07
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	35	27	34	23	19	138
Average	1.75	1.35	1.7	1.15	0.95	6.9

Table 25

Forth Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 4
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	1	06
S2	1	1	1	0	0	03
S3	2	2	3	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	1	1	1	0	0	03
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	1	1	1	06
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	1	1	1	1	1	05
Total	34	27	31	21	19	132
Average	1.7	1.35	1.55	1.05	0.95	6.6

The intended student is a male who demonstrated remarkable disinterest during the previous two sessions, but appeared more motivated towards the content of the video extract as he assumed being a fan of animated films (a movie that is made from a series of drawings or puppets). He appeared to break his silence and began to express himself verbally and through body gestures, claiming to be a great fan of Paddington; the main character of the intended animation film. Similarly, the majority of students appeared to be revived by the brief viewing sequence; however, their English performances remained unsatisfactory.

Likewise, the third session, the fourth one's main concern was to incite students to hold a conversation on a given topic; in addition to the use of ellipsis. This activity required pair work to create the intended conversation (see Table 11).

Following the positive impression that the first extract left on the students in the previous session, the researcher used another short excerpt from the animated film *Paddington*. Again, this was restricted to a single exposition with no special treatment of the extract's content or consideration of the issue of speaking, let alone listening. However, contrary to expectations, students appeared less motivated than in the previous session, with the exception of four students (S3, S7, S13, and S18) who already have a good speaking level in general.

The point is that the activity this time requires mastery of the elements of interactive communication, which necessitates familiarity and command of communication strategies, use of functional language, conversational turn-taking, and clarification requests. In other words, these students (S6, S10, S16, and S20) took long pauses and were unable to keep the conversation flowing. Furthermore, in terms of pronunciation, some students reported difficulties in using appropriate intonation, which frequently hampered communication.

Students also showed little regard for ellipsis, despite the teacher's insistence. However, nothing significant deserved to be reported in terms of self-correction.

6.1.1.3. Fifth and Seventh Sessions' Observation Data

Following students' suggestions during the first session, from which the vast majority of topics were chosen, the fifth and sixth topics were presented to students to suit their preferences and gauge their reactions to historical subjects. The topics were abolitionism and women's segregation, with activities limited to the traditional method of teaching: topic discussion. The goal of the fifth session, in more detail, was to spark a discussion by introducing some historical information about the slave trade and the 1980s abolitionist movement. The sixth session was devoted to a discussion of women's segregation using agreement and disagreement expressions as well as some appropriate proverbs. (See summary of the listening-free stage table).

In general, we observed an increase in students' motivation in both sessions, given that the two topics, despite being suggested by them, had previously been covered in other courses, indicating that students are well informed; however, the language to verbalise the acquired knowledge remains challenging. Indeed, as shown in the summary tables for the fifth and sixth sessions, there was a relatively significant improvement in some weak students' discourse management, vocabulary, and spoken grammar (Session Five: S1, S2, S5, S8, and S20; Session Six: S11, S17), because they were able to participate using more or less lengthy utterances. In terms of pronunciation in relation to the use of ellipsis, only two students (S12, S16) in the fifth session and one student (S20) in the sixth session performed relatively better. In terms of interactive communication, students struggled with taking turns while holding the discussion, which frequently devolved into two or three groups chattering.

Table 26

Fifth Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 5
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	1	1	07
S2	2	1	1	0	0	04
S3	2	2	3	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	2	1	1	0	0	04
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	2	1	2	08
S13	2	2	2	2	2	10
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	2	1	1	1	2	07
Total	39	27	32	21	21	140
Average	1.95	1.35	1.6	1.05	1.05	7

Table 27

Sixth Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 6
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	1	1	07
S2	2	1	1	0	1	05
S3	2	2	3	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	2	1	1	0	1	05
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	2	1	1	1	0	05
S12	2	1	2	1	2	08
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	2	1	1	0	1	05
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	2	1	2	1	2	08
Total	41	27	34	21	24	147
Average	2.05	1.35	1.7	1.05	1.2	7.35

Furthermore, in terms of self-correction, we observed little improvement in students' ability to correct their own mistakes, with two students (S20, S12) in the fifth session and three (S2, S8, and S17) in the sixth session. This is most likely due to students' enthusiasm for the topics and mastery of the vocabulary associated with these two topics. This could also be related to the exciting nature of these topics (particularly the second), which are always based on two opposing viewpoints attempting to persuade and gain approval from the other. Throughout the sixth session, some female students (S2, S8, and S16) were on high alert, defending the cause of women against everything and everyone.

6.1.1.4. Seventh and Eighth Sessions' Observation Data

The main goal of the seventh and eighth lectures is to introduce some important aspects of the English language. Following the playback of the relevant video extract, the teacher briefly introduced the main topic of each session (idioms and phrasal verbs, respectively), provided some examples, and then moved on to the selected activity. The seventh lesson activity required students to be divided into groups of four, with each group assigned an idiom from which an anecdote must be constructed. Each group's representative presents the anecdote, and the other groups attempt to guess the idiom in question. The eighth lecture activity required more individual work, with each student telling his or her morning routine using as many phrasal verbs as possible.

The seventh session activity seems to have had a significant impact on student motivation. The majority of students participated, and the teacher rarely felt the need to invite the students to join in the class atmosphere. The competitive nature of this activity combined with the fact that it is a group work, stimulated the majority of students' willingness to engage within the group, sharing ideas and building the story; in addition to feeling at ease since the collaborative work relieves the burden of generating and producing English.

Table 28

Seventh Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 7
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	1	1	07
S2	1	1	1	1	2	06
S3	2	2	3	3	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	1	2	09
S7	3	2	3	3	2	13
S8	1	1	1	1	1	05
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	2	1	1	2	1	07
S12	2	1	2	1	2	08
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	1	1	04
S15	1	1	1	1	1	05
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	2	1	1	1	1	06
S18	3	2	3	3	2	13
S19	1	2	1	1	1	06
S20	2	1	2	1	2	08
Total	37	27	34	29	28	155
Average	1.85	1.35	1.7	1.45	1.4	7.75

Table 29

Eighth Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 8
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	0	2	1	0	04
S2	1	1	1	2	2	07
S3	2	2	3	3	2	12
S4	1	2	2	2	2	09
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	1	2	2	1	1	07
S7	2	2	3	3	2	12
S8	1	0	1	1	0	03
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	0	05
S11	1	1	1	2	1	06
S12	1	1	2	1	2	07
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	1	1	04
S15	1	1	1	2	1	06
S16	1	0	2	1	0	04
S17	1	1	1	1	1	05
S18	2	2	3	3	2	12
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	25	22	34	31	23	135
Average	1.25	1.1	1.7	1.55	1.15	6.75

In the eighth session, however, students appeared far more hesitant to embark on the related activity adventure. Presenting their morning routine on stage in front of an audience (the teacher and peers) appeared to be challenging, and the majority of students were unable to deliver a cohesive and understandable speech.

As shown in the table related to the observation grid of the seventh and eighth sessions, students made significant performances in the interactive communication mainly (S2, S3, S7, S8, S11, S14, S17, and S18). While working in a group, some students exhibit a promising, albeit slight, amount of confidence, which assisted them in managing their speech and correcting their mistakes at the teacher's signal (S2, S6, S11, and S14). However, we observed some regression in student performance in relation to the first indicator as a result of a lack of vocabulary and the use of the past simple (S2, S8, S15, and S19).

However, we noticed a regress in student scores related to the individual presentations in the eighth session. In terms of vocabulary, the majority of students appeared to have a serious problem with phrasal verbs (S4, S5, S7, S12, S17, S18, and S20), and some even confused the present and past forms of certain verbs (S1, S6, S9, S11, and S16). Concerning discourse management, students in general demonstrated difficulty maintaining their speech stamina and appeared to struggle to connect the various parts of their speech, particularly S1, S8, S10, S16, and S19. As a result, even with the teacher's intervention, many students (primarily in S1, S6, S8, S16, and S20) were unable to manage their speech and continued without corrections or, at worst, made long stops until one of their peers came to their aid.

In general, the demanding nature of this session's activity influenced students' overall performance in terms of the English-speaking production. To put it another way, the majority of students appear to struggle with individually presenting the given task in English. This is because they are expected to rely solely on themselves from beginning to end, maintaining

their speech stamina for as long as possible, and dealing with their psychic issues such as shyness, fear of facing the audience, and spreading their language problems in front of others. For that reason, those students appear to be more at ease when working in groups. This can be beneficial in terms of developing their English-speaking abilities and reducing stress caused by the difficulty of speaking English, until they acquire the necessary knowledge and reach a desirable level that allows them to rely on themselves and communicate better in English. Evidence of the benefits or drawbacks of pair and group work activities over students' speaking skill is intended for the listening-based stage (experimental stage).

6.1.1.5. Ninth and Tenth Sessions' Observation Data

The main goal of the ninth and tenth sessions was to give a presentation that captured the hearts and minds of the audience. Because the task this time requires a relatively long time to complete, the topic was divided into two sessions to accommodate all twenty students and give them enough time to prepare their speeches. The teacher, as usual, played the selected video extract, briefly explained the meaning of the metaphor and how to use it, and then proceeded to the activity. Students were assigned to work individually on preparing a speech and simulating *Hirak* orators in order to persuade the audience (teacher and students) of a particular point of view. They were given half an hour to prepare their works and were instructed to use metaphors in their speeches.

The topic of this session piqued students' interest because it was timely and prominent in the news. The activity was both appealing and motivating. Nonetheless, students' accomplishments were not as satisfying as expected. Even when given enough time to prepare their presentations, the majority of students, with the exception of the four skilled (S3, S7, S13, S18), struggled to simulate the role of an orator and could hardly speak without looking at the paper, transforming the activity into a reading aloud activity.

Table 30

Ninth and Tenth Sessions Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 9&10
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	1	1	1	06
S2	2	1	1	1	1	06
S3	3	2	1	2	2	10
S4	2	2	2	2	1	09
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	1	2	1	1	07
S7	4	3	3	2	2	14
S8	2	1	1	1	1	06
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	1	06
S11	1	1	1	1	1	05
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	1	1	1	1	1	05
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	1	1	1	06
S17	2	1	1	1	1	06
S18	3	3	3	3	2	14
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	1	1	1	05
Total	39	27	27	26	24	143
Average	**1.95**	**1.35**	**1.35**	**1.3**	**1.2**	**7.15**

Furthermore, we noticed that the majority of students do not clearly distinguish between written and oral English language features. Their dissertations were composed of full, well-structured sentences; they lacked natural speech characteristics such as false starts and hesitation; and they lacked the natural way an orator normally acts in order to use body language to be persuasive. Moreover, because students were reading rather than acting, they did not play with pitch and intonation to demonstrate focus on specific words and parts of speech or draw the audience attention to special points as orators normally do.

Students' achievements in vocabulary and grammar were slightly higher than in previous sessions, as shown in the table below, because they were given more time to use dictionaries and prepare their work this time. In terms of discourse management, students failed to use natural spoken English features and were not very persuasive. As previously stated, they ignored stress, pitch and intonation, making their presentation sound like a reading aloud activity, if not worse. In terms of interactive communication, some students struggled to answer questions from the audience (teacher and peers) to clarify certain points in their discourse. Similarly, despite the teacher's insistence on the use of pitch, stress, and body language, the majority of them were unable to regulate their presentation.

As a result, even when given adequate time and permitted to use dictionaries and other aids, students were unable to deliver satisfactory presentations and improve their speaking.

6.1.1.6. Eleventh and Twelfth Sessions' Observation Data

The main topic of the eleventh session was storytelling. Following a brief watching sequence, students were assigned an activity in which they were required to rely on their own experiences to tell a short story with a significant morale at the end encouraging or warning the audience (teacher and peers) not to make a bad decision. Students were allowed three minutes each, and asked to use discourse markers to organise their stories.

Table 31

Eleventh Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 11
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	1	1	1	05
S2	1	0	1	1	0	03
S3	3	2	1	2	2	10
S4	2	1	2	2	1	08
S5	1	1	1	1	0	04
S6	2	1	1	1	1	06
S7	4	3	3	2	2	14
S8	1	0	1	0	1	03
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	1	06
S11	1	1	1	1	1	05
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	1	1	1	1	1	05
S16	1	1	1	1	0	04
S17	1	1	1	1	1	05
S18	3	3	3	2	2	13
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	1	1	0	04
Total	33	23	26	23	19	124
Average	1.65	1.15	1.3	1.15	0.95	6.2

Table 32

Twelfth Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 12
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	1	1	1	05
S2	0	0	0	0	0	00
S3	3	2	2	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	1	09
S5	1	1	1	0	1	04
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	4	3	3	2	2	14
S8	0	0	0	0	0	00
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	1	06
S11	1	0	1	1	0	03
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	0	0	0	0	0	00
S15	2	1	1	2	1	07
S16	1	1	1	1	1	05
S17	0	0	0	0	0	00
S18	3	3	3	3	2	14
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	0	0	0	0	0	00
Total	29	22	23	21	18	113
Average	1.45	1.1	1.15	1.05	0.9	5.65

We confirmed, through observation of verbal reactions and body language, that average and weak students are not particularly motivated when it comes to individual presentations. The researcher observed a lack of the requested vocabulary as well as some issues with the spoken grammar, such as the use of the past simple tense.

Furthermore, students demonstrated significant difficulties in managing their discourse due to a lack of knowledge about the storytelling necessary elements such as: adhering to a clear structure and delimiting the four P's (people, plot, place, and purpose); ensuring the audience can relate and follow using discourse markers; including surprise; and appealing to the audience's emotions.

Furthermore, students demonstrated difficulties with stress and intonation, as well as a shortfall in pronouncing even the words in isolation. In terms of interactive communication, and because they were required to interact with the storyteller after each presentation, weak students struggled with asking questions or inferring the morale (on the part of the audience); and answering the questions, clearly citing the morale, and explaining special points related to their story (on the part of the storyteller). All of the aforementioned setbacks and lack of knowledge resulted in an understandable shortage in the regulation of students' mistakes, which explain poor self-correction scores.

The main focus of the twelfth session, however, was a discussion of Islamophobia, which has recently engulfed the non-Muslim world. Despite the novelty of the topic and the fact that it was primarily chosen by students, the associated activity appeared to be quite unappealing, leading to students' reluctance to participate in the discussion. Only a few good students seemed interested; the rest hid behind them and participated only infrequently. This explains the null scores assigned to some of them in the observation grid of the twelfth session.

The analysis of the results leads to the conclusion that even when the students are interested in the topic or whatever aids are introduced; the activity remains an important part of the equation. When the level of difficulty is too high for the students, the scores are generally low, revealing a lack of English-speaking skill on the part of the students. The weak ones generally show reluctance and carelessness when the activity allows for laziness, chattering, or hiding behind better elements. Working in small groups where everyone is watched and assigned a specific task may solve the aforementioned problems and help students develop their English-speaking abilities.

6.1.1.7. Thirteenth Session Observation Data

The final session of the pre-listening stage focused on providing a description of a known individual. Following the brief viewing sequence, the teacher positioned the image on a portrait of the well-known British actor Rowan Atkinson. Students were divided into pairs and asked to construct a conversation of eight roles for each based on the teacher's suggested statement. This latter is based on describing the intended actor to a friend who is having difficulty remembering the character of the film Johnny English.

The majority of the students were excited to watch the video because they are fans of the actor. They also expressed a strong desire to participate in the activity, owing to the fact that it is a pair work activity and the statement seemed appropriate for them. However, as is customary, their achievements in EFL production were less than satisfactory. Their English-speaking performance is still hampered by their extremely limited vocabulary. In terms of spoken grammar, students often overlook the fact that they can use short utterances, clauses, or even single words to convey the same meaning as a lengthy sentence in written grammar.

Table 33

Thirteenth Session Observation Grid Summary (Stage 1)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 13
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	1	1	1	05
S2	1	1	1	1	1	05
S3	3	2	2	2	2	11
S4	2	1	2	2	1	08
S5	1	1	1	0	1	04
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	3	3	2	2	13
S8	1	1	1	1	1	05
S9	1	1	1	2	1	06
S10	2	1	2	2	1	08
S11	1	0	1	1	0	03
S12	1	1	1	2	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	1	1	1	0	0	03
S15	2	1	1	2	1	07
S16	1	1	1	1	1	05
S17	1	1	1	1	1	05
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	1	1	1	05
Total	32	25	29	27	22	135
Average	**1.6**	**1.25**	**1.45**	**1.35**	**1.1**	**6.75**

Results confirm the teachers' and students' responses in the related questionnaires (see the previous chapter). Students, have a severe lack of discourse management skills in terms of features of everyday spoken conversation such as pause fillers, chunks, and vague language, making their English appear very unnatural and more akin to reading aloud from a given script. These deficiencies have a negative impact on their ability to manage their knowledge and regulate their speaking, which explains their poor self-correction results and reveals their lack of autonomy in speaking English

6.1.2. Data Analysis and Interpretation of Pre-listening Stage Observation

The first part of the field work concretized the vast majority of the conclusions drawn from both questionnaires' analyses. Observing students' achievements during the thirteen sessions of the free-listening stage confirmed teachers' and students' responses and was quite useful in considering students' English-speaking shortcomings up close.

Except for four students who already have good English-speaking skills, the remaining sixteen students are plagued by a variety of serious issues that prevent them from interacting in an effective and autonomous way while speaking English. Those issues are organized according to the five indicators of the observation grid. Accordingly, the four first indicators including vocabulary and spoken grammar, discourse management, pronunciation and interactive communication are drawn from Thornbury's (2013) description of the recognized speaking test Cambridge Certificate in English Language Speaking Skills (CELS). To this self-correction is added to determine students' ability to proceed over correcting their own mistakes relying on themselves not on the others. It is tightly connected to autonomy; a facet of success in English language learning in general, speaking in special (Davies & Pearse, 2000).

To begin with vocabulary, students appear to struggle with finding the appropriate words to convey the message and speak intelligibly. They lack the type of functional language necessary for speaking meaningful and efficient English. This includes the necessary vocabulary for greetings, apologizing, asking permission, complaining, making requests, agreeing and disagreeing, introducing oneself, asking for or giving advice, explaining rules, describing things and persons, etc. Even when they know the words, some students struggle to recall them and take longer to remember, which does not meet the demands of natural speaking and immediate interaction. This is the direct result of a lack of oral English practise.

In terms of grammar, many students struggled with properly ranging their vocabulary as well as asking questions, in addition to their incorrect use of the past simple of verbs, particularly irregular verbs. Even more serious, they appear to confuse written and spoken grammar rules and to disregard how to relate on close-unit length rather than sentence-unit length to speak meaningful and rapid English. Even the most skilled ones do not use ellipsis and rely on wordy sentences, making their speech appear very unnatural and, as previously stated, more akin to reading aloud from a script. This is why they are unable to deal with the demanding nature of immediate conversation, which allows for very little time to analyse what has been said and respond appropriately.

Regarding discourse management, the majority of students were unable to maintain a coherent flow of language across several utterances using the proper assortment of linguistic resources. This was evident in activities that required individual presentations, the reason for which was students' aversion to such activities.

And except for the very weak students, the majority had no difficulty pronouncing the words in isolation. Nonetheless, they have real difficulties linking words together using appropriate pronunciation. This hampers the intelligibility of their speech in the majority of cases. Another issue is the use of phonological features such as the appropriate stress placement (both at the word and sentence levels) and appropriate intonation, which is often overwhelmed by the Arabic accent.

In what relates to interactive communication, students face numerous challenges in interacting fluently with the teacher and their peers. They are unaware of the appropriate functional language required for spontaneous communication as well as for everyday conversations. They ignore strategies such as false starts, paraphrasing, pause fillers (e.g., well, Um, Er, actually, you know, you see, I mean, I guess, or something, right, Mhm, okay),

and the use of chunks (collocations, phrasal verbs, idioms and sayings, discourse markers, and social formulas) to ensure effective English that sounds natural.

All of the knowledge gaps mentioned above have an impact on students' ability to repair and correct their English speaking. Natural speech and interactive communication have high demands that leave little time for self-correction. This has a negative impact on students' autonomy. Weak students have no choice but to seek help from others or inset another language; Arabic appears to be the best option for the majority of them.

Overall, a number of annotations were drawn from the observation of students during the free-listening stage. We need to:

- Assist students in mastering all knowledge that will enable them to speak intelligibly and fluently (functional language, features of spoken grammar, discourse management, etc.).
- Vary activities and avoid over-reliance on boring discussions, which may attract only good students while increasing reluctance and regress in weak ones.
- Encourage group and pair work activities rather than individual presentations, at least during the first sessions, until students have gained sufficient knowledge to take action to participate and practise their English.
- Avoid high-demand activities to encourage everyone to participate and incite weak students to leave their shadow zones and get in the course.
- The teacher only participates when necessary to introduce the topic or explain a particular point, leaving the majority of the session's talk to the students so that they practise their English.

- Be omnipresent and keep an eye on the students who are having real difficulties, but do not expose them to on-stage presentations until they have overcome their shyness and fear of losing face in front of the audience.
- Match the activity of watching video excerpts with appropriate activities that can assist students in extracting the necessary knowledge and paying attention to the various features of real spoken English.
- Choose the video extract in collaboration with the students to ensure their initial enthusiasm and motivation to work with these educational tools.
- Avoid frequent corrections and encourage students to self-correct when possible.
- Set the stage for fruitful pair work by rearranging the classroom so that a weak student sits next to an active one.
- Integrate English culture into the oral-expression classroom by showcasing culturally bound images of castles, famous English people, actors, proverbs and sayings, maps, and other items.

The bottom line, observing the listening-free phase was quite useful in broadening our knowledge of students' speaking problems, as well as in directing our reflection on our own practise in the oral-expression course, and forging our professional vision of how things are and how they could be improved, as said by Cooke & Simpson (2008, p. 135). As a result, all of the preceding points are intended to be taken seriously in the following section, which is devoted for the dubbed listening-based stage.

6.1.3. Presentation of the Observation Data in the Listening-based Stage (experimental)

The listening-based stage followed in the footsteps of the free-listening stage, with thirteen sessions covering the same topics. The difference is the introduction of a listening

instruction based on the same short videos but this time related to three types of well-designed activities: pre-listening, listening, and post-listening activities. The pre-listening activity usually followed the researcher's brief presentation of some necessary knowledge and explanation of some aspects of the language in order to better prepare the students for the listening and speaking phases.

The listening activities varied between individual and pair work and were intended to raise students' awareness to specific aspects of the English spoken language in order to activate the process of self-monitoring and self-correction. The most time was allotted to speaking activities, which generally include appropriation and automaticity activities and targeted enabling students practise what they learned in previous stages. Whereas appropriation activities were designed to help students achieve self-regulation of the targeted aspects of the spoken language, automaticity activities were meant to assess students' ability to operate that self-regulated knowledge in situations close to real life conditions, as recommended by Thornbury (2013, pp.89-90).

Students were given a document titled *General Handout* during the first session, which served as a resource for some useful information that they may require for the development of their English spoken language proficiency (see Appendices; General Handout). This includes some generalities about speaking, such as the transactional and interpersonal functions, interactive and non-interactive facets, and the planned and spontaneous aspects of speaking in general. Also, it covers brief knowledge about what students need to know to develop their English-speaking skill including speech acts, register, discourse management, spoken grammar, vocabulary, phonology, to name but a few.

However, at the outset of each session, the teacher distributed a handout bearing the knowledge intended for that session. The goal is to provide students with useful

information about particular characteristics of the English spoken language or topic-related information that is required for the completion of the activities and achievement of the given session pre-set objectives. The document also includes detailed instructions and relevant information for the three types of activities described above. However, information about the content and the course of the lessons is detailed in the Chapter 4.

The performance of students in this stage was evaluated using the same observation indicators as in the previous stage, which includes grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation, interactive communication, and self-correction. In contrast to the first stage, the students have now become familiar to the teacher, as she no longer confuses their names and is aware of each and every individual's strength, weaknesses, and preferences. This simplified and made the evaluation more practical. The video excerpts were played and replayed according to the degree of the language difficulty and the nature of the activity, and students' demands. The results and their analysis will be detailed in the upcoming sections.

6.1.3.1. First Session Observation Data

The teacher begins by briefly explaining the information presented in the first session-related handout regarding the function and importance of speech acts in English before moving on to the pre-listening activity (warm-up). This activity had a time limit of ten minutes. For the listening phase, two activities were designed. The first was a two-part listening comprehension activity that included listening to the teacher read aloud a given conversation between two friends; the second involved watching a short video extract of a conversation in which the main subject was giving advice. The next activity, dubbed awareness-raising, aimed to draw students' attention to some aspects of the English language, specifically how to advise (the main topic of this lesson). The speaking activities were divided

into two categories: appropriation and automaticity, and they lasted sixty minutes. For more details see Chapter 4 (Table 22).

Following the distribution of the handouts, students expressed satisfaction and gratitude. By the end of the lecture, they told the researcher that this experience had granted them the support they needed to broaden their knowledge and develop related vocabulary, lowering their gaps while speaking.

Students showed a high level of interest throughout the various activities and seemed motivated and involved in everything that was happening in the classroom. Consequently, no chattering was heard and the teacher did not feel the need to invite the students to engage in the activities. However, when we compared the responses of the students to the two listening comprehension activities, we found that they significantly preferred the one based on the watching sequence to the activity based on the teacher's customary reading aloud.

And because they had been informed that the activities would be based on how attentive they could be to the content of the video extract in general and features of the English language in particular, the watching sequence kept the students' full attention. Many female students demonstrated positive verbal and/or body language behaviours because they were Hugh Grant and Julia Roberts fans (Notting Hill's Heroes).

Moreover, the teacher subtly evaluated the students' performances based on the automaticity activity without the students' awareness to prevent potential impact on their behaviour. According to this activity, students had to be divided into three-person groups who had to act out the three characters from the video while choosing one of the two scenarios that the teacher had suggested. The groups were initially created by the teacher to maintain a balance and guarantee that each group had at least one skilled and one weak student. Students' achievements in the first session are shown in the following observation grid:

Table 34

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage First Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 01
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1			X				X						X				X					X				07
S2		X					X					X					X					X				05
S3				X					X					X					X						X		15
S4				X				X					X					X					X			11
S5			X				X					X					X					X				06
S6			X					X					X					X					X			09
S7				X				X						X				X					X			12
S8		X					X					X					X					X				05
S9			X				X					X					X					X				06
S10			X					X					X				X						X			09
S11			X				X					X					X					X				06
S12			X				X						X				X					X				07
S13				X					X					X					X					X		15
S14		X					X					X					X					X				05
S15			X				X						X				X					X				07
S16				X			X						X				X						X			09
S17		X					X					X					X					X				05
S18				X				X						X				X						X		13
S19			X				X						X				X					X				07
S20		X					X						X				X					X				06
Total	41					29					37					28					30					165
Average	2.05					1.45					1.85					1.4					1.5					8.25

Since they could negotiate meaning with more skilled peers without having to face the class or the teacher's pressure, weak students found working in small groups to be quite appealing and satisfying.

Besides, to guarantee fruitful observation, the teacher ensured that the intended group work was truly based on the collaboration of all members and did not devolve at any point into individual work with a collaborative profit. The teacher attempted to be omnipresent in order to establish equilibrium within the small groups by inviting skilled students to consider their less qualified classmates and encouraging those latter to try to snatch a place in the middle of the group and share their ideas without fear or embarrassment.

Along with the notable improvement in motivation, students' performances have witnessed some improvement in accordance with the five observational indicators, as is evident in the observation grid above. First, they speaking gaps are significantly reduced and shortened as a result of their increased confidence, which they attributed to the vocabulary presented in the handout and the language presented in the video extract. Even so, they continued to use wordy sentences rather than clause units when it came to spoken grammar.

Additionally, it appeared that students were still having difficulty controlling their own discourse because the majority of them struggled to maintain a coherent stream of language across multiple utterances in addition to having insufficient knowledge of and poor use of discourse markers. They also appeared having trouble in pronunciation especially using intonation, which makes their English sound like Arabic. Some students have significant trouble dividing speech into meaningful informational blocks known as 'tone units' (Thornbury, 2013). When it comes to interactive communication, students made a slight improvement, especially in terms of taking and yielding turns imitating the characters in the brief excerpt. However, only six students (S3, S4, S7, S10, S13, S16 and S18) were aptly able to correct their mistakes on their own using paraphrasing.

Table 35

Comparison of First Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 1
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	0	05
S2	0	0	0	0	0	00
S3	3	2	3	2	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	2	1	09
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	0	0	0	0	0	00
S9	2	1	1	1	0	05
S10	2	2	2	1	0	07
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	0	0	0	0	0	00
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	0	0	0	0	0	00
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	1	1	1	1	06
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	31	23	30	22	17	123
Average	1.55	1.15	1.5	1.1	0.85	6.15

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 1
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	1	1	07
S2	1	1	1	1	1	05
S3	3	3	3	3	3	15
S4	3	2	2	2	2	11
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	2	1	09
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	1	1	1	1	1	05
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	2	1	2	09
S11	2	1	1	1	1	06
S12	2	1	2	1	1	07
S13	3	3	3	3	3	15
S14	1	1	1	1	1	05
S15	2	1	2	1	1	07
S16	3	1	2	1	2	09
S17	1	1	1	1	1	05
S18	3	2	3	2	3	13
S19	2	1	2	1	1	07
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	41	29	37	28	30	165
Average	2.05	1.45	1.85	1.4	1.5	8.25

6.1.3.1.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' First Sessions

Students' achievements during the first sessions of the listening-free and listening-based stages are demonstrated in the table above. Despite the fact that they both dealt with the same subject matter –advising– a comparison of the results reveals that, on average, there has been a significant improvement in the majority of students' performances according to the five indicators of the observation. Only three students appeared to maintain the same marks during these sessions. The weak participants (S2, S8, S14, and S17) who displayed a strong reluctance in the first session of the first stage, which accounts for the null marks, appeared more engaged in the first session of the listening-based stage, even though their performance was still unsatisfactory. The first indicator, however, showed the most improvement because students were this time supported by the language presented in both the handout and the video extract. As compared to the very first session of the first stage, students also appear to have made a significant improvement in their ability to self-correct. Comparatively to the first listening-free stage session, the first listening-based stage session seemed more promising overall. The total average shifted from 6.15 in the first stage to 8.25 in the second.

6.1.3.2. Second Session Observation Data

Similar to the second session in the listening-free stage, the focus of the second session in this stage was on another crucial speech act: 'how to apologise in English.' The importance and common usage of the word *sorry* in English culture were covered in the handouts that were given to the students in this context. They were informed of the other uses (speech acts) of this word, such as astonishment, drawing attention, initiating a conversation, expressing *No*, asking for clarification, or indicating misunderstanding, in addition to its initial function 'apology'. To express the various aforementioned functions, emphasis was placed on the intonation shift that occurs when saying *sorry*. Additionally, students were given a few substitute expressions for this word in typical English conversation.

Similar to the first session, the activities were split into speaking, listening, and warm-up (pre-listening) activities. The first activity, which lasted around ten minutes, asked students to provide examples for each of the various functions of the word *sorry*. The second activity, which lasted for more than twenty minutes, involved watching three brief video clips to consolidate the information learned during the pre-listening stage. It was initially intended to increase students' awareness of the significance and frequent usage of *sorry* in English, as well as its various functions. The final set of activities, lasted about an hour and were split into two parts: appropriation and automaticity activities. Based on pair work, the first one focused on students' appropriation or mastery of the information presented in the pre- and listening phases in addition to their performances in terms of interactive communication. The second activity involved a group work based on a language game we called *Chain Dialogue*, which was primarily inspired by Thornbury's *Chain Story* (2013). The main focus of the observation and evaluation was on the students' speaking performances in this activity.

In general, the second session was lively and the classroom atmosphere was extremely positive, even better than it was during the first one. Students showed great enthusiasm towards the different suggested activities, especially the two last ones: the appropriation and the automaticity activity (Chain Dialogue). The competitive aspect of these activities was the main reason behind students' positive attitudes. Additionally, they expressed verbal appreciation for the addition of new activity types to the oral expression course, which changed it up from the usual, eternal like topic discussions.

Regarding seriousness and willingness to learn from the watching sequence, students demonstrated unexpected professionalism during the listening activity since they were paying close attention and taking notes even without the teacher's direction. Never once did the teacher feel that it was necessary to keep the class in line by urging the students to pay attention, take notes, or engage in the various suggested activities.

Table 36

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Second Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 02
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1			X				X						X					X				X				08
S2			X				X					X						X				X				07
S3				X					X					X					X					X		15
S4				X				X					X					X					X			11
S5			X				X					X					X					X				06
S6			X					X					X					X					X			10
S7				X				X						X				X					X			12
S8			X				X						X				X					X				07
S9			X					X					X					X					X			09
S10			X					X					X				X						X			09
S11			X				X					X						X				X				07
S12				X			X						X					X					X			10
S13				X					X					X					X					X		15
S14		X					X					X					X					X				05
S15				X				X					X					X					X			11
S16				X				X					X					X					X			11
S17			X				X					X					X					X				06
S18				X				X						X				X						X		13
S19				X			X						X					X					X			10
S20			X				X						X				X					X				07
Total	48					32					39					36					34					189
Average	2.4					1.6					1.95					1.8					1.7					9.45

Students' performances continued to improve, as can be seen in the table of the observation grid above. At varying levels, all of the observed competencies showed progress. The knowledge and language in the handout and the video excerpts kept giving the students the assistance they needed to increase their vocabulary and minimise speaking pauses. As a result, they have less trouble in the automaticity activity at least remembering or using the vocabulary needed to express their ideas, even when faced with the demands of immediate conversation, which gives them very brief instances to understand what is being said and prepare an adequate and meaningful response. Only one student (S14) received a poor mark in vocabulary and spoken grammar; he scored the same note in all of his other performances.

Moreover, the majority of students demonstrated a significant improvement in interactive communication (S1, S2 S3 S4 S6 S7 S9 S11 S12 S13 S15 S16 S18 and S19) and discourse management (S3, S4, S6, S7, S9, S10, S13, S15, S16 and S18), taking and yielding turns with relative ease, and using discourse markers when necessary. Shy Students who had previously struggled to speak in front of others orally in English appeared to have gained some confidence. Skilful ones were even able to imitate the characters presented in the video excerpt in using hesitation and false starts.

When it came to pronunciation, the majority of students made progress, particularly with regard to the intonation of the word *sorry* in light of its various functions and contexts. Also, most students also seemed more at ease correcting their errors and rephrasing their speech in response to the teacher's gesture.

The level of competition was at its peak. In an effort to perform better, students even requested that the teacher conduct the activity once more. Due to everyone's efforts to speak English more like a native, the performance gap that was evident in the first stage seemed to narrow in this stage namely between average and good students.

Table 37

Comparison of Second Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 2
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	1	06
S2	1	1	1	1	0	04
S3	3	2	3	2	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	2	1	09
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	1	1	1	0	0	03
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	2	1	0	07
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	0	0	0	0	0	00
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	34	27	33	23	19	136
Average	1.7	1.35	1.65	1.15	0.95	6.8

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 2
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	2	1	08
S2	2	1	1	2	1	07
S3	3	3	3	3	3	15
S4	3	2	2	2	2	11
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	2	2	10
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	2	1	2	1	1	07
S9	2	2	2	2	1	09
S10	2	2	2	1	2	09
S11	2	1	1	2	1	07
S12	3	1	2	2	2	10
S13	3	3	3	3	3	15
S14	1	1	1	1	1	05
S15	3	2	2	2	2	11
S16	3	2	2	2	2	11
S17	2	1	1	1	1	06
S18	3	2	3	2	3	13
S19	3	1	2	2	2	10
S20	2	1	2	1	1	07
Total	48	32	39	36	34	189
Average	2.4	1.6	1.95	1.8	1.7	9.45

6.1.3.2.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages Second Sessions

During the second session of the pre-listening stage, we observed that the majority of students had serious difficulties expressing themselves using appropriate English vocabulary to advise, particularly in terms of exchanging information (interactive communication) and expressing their ideas using cohesive and connected speech (discourse management), in addition to lack of vocabulary, problems in pronunciation and inability to self-correction. Some students scored extremely low (S2, S5, S8, S11, and S17), and one student expressed complete aversion to the suggested activity. However, even though the topic was the same in the second session of the listening-based stage, students achieved better results practically according to all of the indicators of the observation. As previously stated, motivation and readiness to learn and participate in classroom activities were at their highpoint. This is evident in student scores (S2, S8, S9, S10, S11, S14, S15, S16, S17, and S19), which increased by three points. There were no null marks because everyone was involved and involved in the activities. The total average increased significantly from 6.8 in the free-listening stage to 9.45 in the pre-listening stage (See Table 37 above).

6.1.3.3. Third Session Observation Data

The importance of expanding students' vocabulary and knowledge of commonly used chunks and expressions in everyday English was maintained as a priority in the pre-listening phase. Students were provided with useful expressions for conveying misunderstandings or requesting repetition of what was said. In addition, they were given a list of alternative expressions for '*yes, no, thank you,* and *okay*,' which will help them sound natural.

During the listening phase, the teacher suggested a speed alternation activity in which students listened to the selected short extract at three different speeds: slow, normal, and fast, before completing the conversation-script provided. They were then asked to consider some

common English expressions from the script and practise them at least once with their classmates. The aim is to improve students' listening skill and refine their spoken English.

This lesson's spoken activity was divided into appropriation and automaticity activities. The first was a pair work presented in the form of a game and intended to consolidate knowledge gained in previous stages (see third lesson in the previous chapters). It lasted about fifteen minutes. Based on a new statement suggested by the teacher, and organized in group work, the second activity required students to reconstruct the dialogue, using as much words and expressions learned from Handout3 and paying attention to the use of different registers (formal and informal English). They were then supposed to act out the dialogue as the four characters: Paddington and the three members of the family.

Students were delighted to see the video extract again during the oral-expression lesson. This time, they appeared to be more enthusiastic about the chosen activities. They appreciated the speed alternation activity because it allowed them to experience normal speech speed and pronunciation while also providing them with the necessary support to complete the activity and decipher the words from the connected speech.

The competitive aspect of the appropriation activity was quite appealing on the parts of students. They appeared very enthusiastic and quite implicated in the task given. But compared to the automaticity activity, students' motivation was at its pick. Group work seems to be more interesting and students appeared at ease working together and sharing ideas while building the dialogue. During the fifteen minutes they were given to prepare their work, several bursts of laughter were heard in almost every group, and the students appeared to be racing in the competition machine. The teacher moved between student groups to ensure that everyone was speaking English and that everyone was more or less equally involved in the dialogue's construction, at least in terms of their own roles. Achievements are shown below.

Table 38

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Third Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 03
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1			X					X					X					X					X			10
S2			X				X					X						X				X				07
S3				X					X					X					X					X		15
S4				X					X					X					X					X		15
S5			X				X						X					X				X				08
S6				X				X					X					X					X			11
S7				X					X					X					X					X		15
S8			X				X						X					X				X				08
S9				X				X					X					X					X			11
S10			X					X					X					X					X			10
S11			X					X					X					X					X			10
S12				X			X						X					X					X			10
S13				X					X					X					X					X		15
S14		X					X					X					X					X				06
S15				X				X					X					X					X			11
S16				X					X					X					X					X		15
S17			X				X					X					X					X				06
S18				X					X					X				X						X		14
S19				X				X					X					X					X			11
S20			X				X						X					X				X				08
Total	50					39					43					43					40					215
Average	2.5					1.95					2.15					2.15					2					10.75

With the exception of one male (S14), the majority of the students performed more or less satisfactorily in the automaticity activity. They appeared to be more flexible in using and recalling the correct vocabulary as well as the simple spoken grammar required making that vocabulary clearer.

Some students' achievements (S3, S4, S7, S13, S16, and S18) demonstrated a significant shift in the production of extended and coherent spoken English (discourse management). They were skilled at imitating the accent and pitch of the video excerpt characters, as well as some facial expressions and body gestures.

With pronunciation, students rarely stumbled. They successfully introduced the expressions learned during the listening phase into their roles with perfect intonation and pitch placement in the majority of cases. Taking and yielding roles in the conversation appeared natural and flexible, especially since it was accompanied by some false starts and hesitation.

Generally, during this session, students' English-speaking performance was quite satisfactory. The improvements in various aspects of speaking skill were noticeable in their ability to paraphrase and correct their mistakes on their own, for some even without the teacher's intervention.

6.1.3.3.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages Third Sessions

This session's results are far superior to those of the listening-free stage. All observation indicators have changed significantly. And since the students were intrinsically engaged to learn and compete with the other groups, the teacher was no longer bothered by inciting them to follow or participate. She was more concerned with ensuring the smooth operation of the pre-listening and listening phases in order to prepare the students for the speaking activity and assist them in developing their command of English speaking.

Table 39

Comparison of Third Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 3
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	1	06
S2	1	1	1	1	0	04
S3	3	2	3	2	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	2	1	09
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	1	1	1	0	0	03
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	2	1	0	07
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	35	27	34	23	19	**138**
Average	**1.75**	**1.35**	**1.7**	**1.15**	**0.95**	**6.9**

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 3
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	2	2	2	2	10
S2	2	1	1	2	1	07
S3	3	3	3	3	3	15
S4	3	3	3	3	3	15
S5	2	1	2	2	1	08
S6	3	2	2	2	2	11
S7	2	3	3	3	3	15
S8	2	1	2	2	1	08
S9	3	2	2	2	2	11
S10	2	2	2	2	2	10
S11	2	2	2	2	2	10
S12	3	1	2	2	2	10
S13	3	3	3	3	3	15
S14	1	1	1	1	1	06
S15	3	2	2	2	2	11
S16	3	3	3	3	3	15
S17	2	1	1	1	1	06
S18	3	3	3	2	3	14
S19	3	2	2	2	2	11
S20	2	1	2	2	1	08
Total	50	39	43	43	40	**215**
Average	**2.5**	**1.95**	**2.15**	**2.15**	**2**	**10.75**

As can be seen, the total average of the third session in the listening-based stage (6.9) far exceeds that of the third session in the listening-based stage (10.75). In more details, the averages related to the indicators of the observation shifted significantly from 1.75 to 2.5 in terms of grammar and vocabulary; from 1.35 to 1.95 in discourse management; from 1.7 to 2.15 in pronunciation; from 1.15 to 2.15 in interactive communication; and even more pronounced in self-correction from 0.95 to 2. If only five students (S3, S4, S7, S13 and S18) achieved the average in the third session of the first stage, approximately three times that number was achieved in the second stage (S1, S3, S4, S6, S7, S9, S10, S11, S12, S13, S15, S16, S18 and S19). Shy students began to take charge of their learning, became more integrated in their groups, and seemed to care less about losing face in front of their peers (S8, S11, S16 and S19). In general, students appear to be more committed to the new oral-expression classroom structure, with its listening section and selected activities, than to the old one.

6.1.3.4. Fourth Session Observation Data.

Just as the fourth session in the listening-free stage, the fourth session in this one was concerned with how to hold a conversation in English. As is customary, students were first given a handout containing some new words to help enrich their vocabulary and prepare them for the upcoming activities. The pre-listening activity embodied two questions. First students were asked to practice the newly learned vocabulary and expressions. Second, given a specific instruction about Paddington, they were asked to infer what might happen next.

In the listening phase, the students were first involved in a speed alternation activity where they were supposed to listen to the extract twice, at slow and normal speeds before completing the dialogue. This time, students could choose from a list of missing words to fill in the blanks with the appropriate ones. The goal is to improve students' listening skills by

training them to recognise words based on their pronunciation or infer them based on context and position in the stream of speech.

Second, the teacher proposed an awareness-raising activity in which she focused on the use of ellipsis as a distinguishing feature of spoken grammar if any speaking performance in English is intended to sound natural and native-like.

This session's speaking activity was based on pair work and consisted of students constructing a conversation of two roles each in which they were asked to make predictions about how the events presented in the extract would end. The others pairs watch and evaluate the presentations.

This time, the listening activity appeared to be beyond the majority of students' abilities. Even though they were given a list of words to complete the dialogue, they had difficulty deciphering the words within the stream of speech. This is because, in the absence of the image, the students relied solely on their listening abilities and were unable to practise inferring from various visual cues such as body language, and landscapes. We conclude that watching is advisable to listening alone, at least in the initial sessions, until students gain sufficient knowledge and self-confidence to solely rely on listening. Furthermore, this appears obvious, because the majority of interactions occur face to face, where students, or speakers in general, may see each other and use what they view to infer the meaning of some difficult words or what they fail to hear clearly, for example, due to too background noise.

This high-demanding activity appeared to have a negative impact on students' motivation. Except for a few outstanding students, the majority did not appear to be as engaged or cooperative as in previous sessions, and this seemed to continue until the last activity. However, no chattering or strong resistance were noticed.

Table 40

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Forth Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 04
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1			X				X						X				X					X				07
S2			X				X					X						X				X				07
S3				X				X						X					X					X		14
S4				X				X					X					X					X			11
S5		X					X					X					X					X				05
S6			X				X					X						X					X			08
S7				X				X						X				X					X			12
S8				X				X					X				X					X				09
S9			X					X					X					X				X				09
S10			X					X					X				X						X			09
S11		X					X					X					X					X				05
S12				X			X						X					X					X			10
S13				X					X					X					X					X		15
S14		X					X					X					X					X				05
S15				X				X					X				X						X			10
S16				X				X					X					X						X		12
S17			X				X					X					X					X				06
S18				X				X						X				X						X		13
S19				X			X						X					X						X		10
S20			X				X					X					X					X				06
Total	47					31					37					33					35					183
Average	2.35					1.55					1.85					1.65					1.75					9.15

This leads us to believe that students' motivation is a delicate matter that requires great care and precision on the part of the teacher to establish the conditions and activities which may generate and sustain it. The awareness-raising activity, however, was accomplished with success and students recognised ellipsis and gave various examples.

As is customary, the speaking activity was used to assess students' progress. The competitive aspect of the activity made it more or less appealing, and students had only 2 minutes to prepare the short dialogue and decide what to say and how to say it. This was done on purpose to gradually assist students in dealing with the fast-paced nature of English conversation and to gradually train students to quickly think about an answer and utter it as quickly as possible.

Faced with the demanding short preparation time allotted for this activity, some students appeared to be struggling and performed poorly (see Table 39 above). We conclude that students must be gradually helped to cope with this very typical feature of English speaking: speed.

As a result, students' achievement regressed when compared to the third session of the listening-based stage, especially in discourse management and interactive communication.

6.1.3.4.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Forth Sessions

When put side by side, the fourth sessions' results of the free-listening and listening based stages showed a significant difference in terms of all the five elements of the observation grid. The listening-based instruction and the use of the activities related to the video extracts seem very fruitful compared to the traditional type of instruction. Even when the activities are challenging, they remain appealing and help students improve their listening and speaking skills.

Table 41

Comparison of Forth Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 4
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	2	1	1	06
S2	1	1	1	0	0	03
S3	2	2	3	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	1	1	1	0	0	03
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	1	1	1	06
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	1	1	1	1	1	05
Total	34	27	31	21	19	**132**
Average	**1.7**	**1.35**	**1.55**	**1.05**	**0.95**	**6.6**

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Pre-listening Stage					Session 4
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	2	2	2	2	07
S2	2	1	1	2	1	07
S3	3	3	3	3	3	14
S4	3	3	3	3	3	11
S5	2	1	2	2	1	05
S6	3	2	2	2	2	08
S7	2	3	3	3	3	12
S8	2	1	2	2	1	09
S9	3	2	2	2	2	09
S10	2	2	2	2	2	09
S11	2	2	2	2	2	05
S12	3	1	2	2	2	10
S13	3	3	3	3	3	15
S14	1	1	1	1	1	05
S15	3	2	2	2	2	10
S16	3	3	3	3	3	12
S17	2	1	1	1	1	06
S18	3	3	3	2	3	13
S19	3	2	2	2	2	10
S20	2	1	2	2	1	06
Total	47	31	37	33	35	**183**
Average	**2.35**	**1.55**	**1.85**	**1.65**	**1.75**	**9.15**

As shown in the tables below, the total average shifted from 6.6 in the fourth session of the first stage to 9.15 in the fourth session of the second stage. Nobody was left out at this point, and all of the students participated in the various activities without exception or special insistence on the part of the teacher. The average of grammar and vocabulary increased from 1.7 to 2.35 as a result of the language provided in the handouts and displayed in the short video excerpts.

Similarly, the listening sequence drew students' attention to some common uses of the English language and useful expressions, as well as ellipsis, which denotes natural speech. It assisted students' development of discourse management in terms of their ability to produce more or less extended and coherent spoken English which explains the shift from 1.35 to 1.55.

Not unlike these, the shift in pronunciation and interactive communication became noticeable. Respectively, the average in the first moved from 1.55 to 1.85 and in the second from 1.05 to 1.65. Even more significant was the increase in self-correction, which increased from 0.95 to 1.75, indicating a link between this skill and students' knowledge expansion and gain of control over their learning.

6.1.3.5. Fifth Session Observation Data

As previously stated in the free-listening stage, the main topic of the fifth session was the introduction of one of the most significant events in British history: the 18th century abolitionist movement. In the pre-listening phase, the teacher asked the students to collect data from the handouts and rely on visual cues to make predictions about the topic. They were also asked to suggest related titles of books and films they had already read or seen that dealt with the abolition of slavery. Students were extremely enthusiastic and motivated to participate in this prediction activity. They were also curious and excited to see what the teacher had in store for them in the upcoming listening phase. In general, predictions swayed

between the American film Amistad (1997) and the British drama film Belle (2014). Those who correctly predicted the source of the fifth session excerpt (Dido) were overjoyed, and applause signalled the end of this first phase.

During the listening phase, students were asked to watch the video extract with the sound turned off in order to draw their attention to the 18th century aristocratic lifestyle, which included mannerisms, mores, and dress. Then, with the sound on, they participated in a listening comprehension activity before moving on to an awareness-raising activity in which they dealt with some specific features of the language spoken by aristocrats, such as pronunciation, intonation and insinuations, as well as a quick reference to ellipsis.

The selection of the video extract, as well as the two activities, captivated the students. Some students attempted to imitate Belle's mannerisms in the video. A student even asked the teacher to suggest that they act out the roles of Dido Belle and Mr. Davinier during the speaking phase (the main characters of the video excerpt).

The suggested activity for the speaking phase, however, required group work as to construct a dialogue based on a given summary of the film 'Belle' and a statement suggested by the teacher; thus, not dissimilar to the student's suggestion. Each group presents its work in front of the other groups who must allocate a mark from 0 to 5 to evaluate the presentation.

Observing students' reactions to this activity reveals that they value group activities, most likely because they collaborate with their peers in developing the language required for the accomplishment of the task required (dialogue construction); and they act in groups, so they are less concerned about speaking or acting alone in front of the teacher and the other groups. Furthermore, observing students' achievements revealed significant improvements. Students' exposure to the handout and the video languages provides them with a significant

Table 42

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Fifth Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 05
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1			X					X					X					X					X			10
S2			X				X					X						X				X				07
S3				X					X					X					X					X		15
S4				X					X					X					X					X		15
S5			X					X					X					X				X				09
S6				X					X				X						X					X		14
S7					X				X					X					X					X		16
S8			X				X						X					X				X				08
S9				X				X					X					X					X			11
S10				X				X					X					X					X			11
S11			X					X					X					X					X			10
S12				X			X						X					X					X			10
S13				X					X					X					X					X		15
S14			X				X					X						X				X				07
S15				X					X				X						X					X		14
S16				X					X					X					X					X		15
S17			X				X					X						X				X				07
S18				X					X					X				X						X		14
S19				X				X					X					X					X			11
S20			X				X						X					X					X			09
Total	53					42					43					47					43					228
Average	2.65					2.1					2.15					2.35					2.15					11.4

amount of linguistic, phonological, social, and even cultural information about the English language and its speakers each session. In other words, students' claims about the lack of vocabulary and how to match this vocabulary in an understandable and effective manner (spoken grammar) appeared to be less common. They become more skilful in ranging and matching words and sentences in a cohesive and coherent way using discourse markers and paralinguistic tools namely pitch and intonation; in addition to the non-verbal phenomena like facial expressions gestures, and eye movement which make the message more explicit and more natural like.

Unlike the previous session, the students this time were highly motivated and eager to collaborate on the assigned tasks, as evidenced by the observation grid above. Thirteen students (S1, S3, S4, S6, S9, S10, S11, S12, S13, S15, S16, S18, and S19) received marks ranging from 10 to 15, with one exceptional student (S7) who received a mark of 16. The averages of all the observation grid indicators exceeded 2; ranking grammar and vocabulary first (2.65), followed by interactive communication (2.35), pronunciation and self-correction third (2.15), and discourse management fourth (2.1). A considerable amelioration of the speaking skill was noticed with two students (S6 and S15). So far, the total average of the fifth session was the highest.

6.1.3.5.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Fifth Sessions

The results of the fifth session revealed a significant gap in students' English-speaking skills. The total average of the fifth session in the first stage (7) far outnumbers that of the fifth session in the listening-based stage (11.4).For grammar and vocabulary, the average shifted significantly from 1.95 to 2.65; from 1.35 to 2.1 in discourse management; from 1.6 to 2.15 in pronunciation; from 1.05 to 2.35 in interactive communication; and even more marked from 1.05 to 2.15 in self-correction. Shy and reticent students who appeared to have problems integrating into groups

Table 43

Comparison of Fifth Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 5
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	1	1	07
S2	2	1	1	0	0	04
S3	2	2	3	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	2	1	1	0	0	04
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	1	1	1	1	0	04
S12	2	1	2	1	2	08
S13	2	2	2	2	2	10
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	1	1	1	0	0	03
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	2	1	1	1	2	07
Total	39	27	32	21	21	140
Average	**1.95**	**1.35**	**1.6**	**1.05**	**1.05**	**7**

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 5
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	2	2	2	2	10
S2	2	1	1	2	1	07
S3	3	3	3	3	3	15
S4	3	3	3	3	3	15
S5	2	2	2	2	1	09
S6	3	3	2	3	3	14
S7	4	3	3	3	3	16
S8	2	1	2	2	1	08
S9	3	2	2	2	2	11
S10	3	2	2	2	2	11
S11	2	2	2	2	2	10
S12	3	1	2	2	2	10
S13	3	3	3	3	3	15
S14	2	1	1	2	1	07
S15	3	3	2	3	3	14
S16	3	3	3	3	3	15
S17	2	1	1	2	1	07
S18	3	3	3	2	3	14
S19	3	2	2	2	2	11
S20	2	1	2	2	2	09
Total	53	42	43	47	43	228
Average	**2.65**	**2.1**	**2.15**	**2.35**	**2.15**	**11.4**

and expressing themselves in the first stage appeared more at ease dealing with the various activities, sharing knowledge with their friends, and speaking and acting in front of others. Some of those (S6 and S16) made significant progress and scored highly in the fifth session of the experimental stage. Unlike the fifth session of the first stage, no null marks were observed in the fifth session of the listening-based stage. These findings highlight the importance of teaching listening through short authentic excerpts and the related activities.

Furthermore, despite the fact that the topic of this session was chosen by the students and that there was a positive reaction to the activity introduced in the listening-free stage, this did not appear to be enough to help students perform better in English, in contrast to the fifth session of the listening-based stage, where the listening sequence appeared to have a greater influence over the students' speaking skill.

6.1.3.6. Sixth Session Observation Data

The sixth lesson focused on the position of women in the Victorian era. During the pre-listening phase, the teacher drew students' attention to the importance of proverbs in English culture and provided them with nine that highlight women's despised position and segregation in comparison to men. Students were both excited and successful in attributing each proverb to the type of segregation it represents. With the same enthusiasm they succeeded in depicting the most important characteristics of the Victorian age through the set of given images.

During the listening phase, the teacher played twice the video excerpt about a centenarian woman who witnessed both the Victorian age and the new era before being involved in a listening comprehension activity in which they were supposed to answer questions related to the content of the video excerpt.

Table 44

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Sixth Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 06
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1			X					X					X					X					X			10
S2			X					X				X						X				X				08
S3				X					X					X					X					X		15
S4				X					X					X					X					X		15
S5			X					X					X					X					X			10
S6				X					X					X					X					X		15
S7					X				X					X						X				X		17
S8			X					X					X					X					X			10
S9				X				X						X					X				X			13
S10				X					X					X					X				X			14
S11				X				X					X						X				X			12
S12				X				X					X					X					X			11
S13				X					X					X					X					X		15
S14			X					X				X						X				X				08
S15				X					X				X						X					X		14
S16				X					X					X					X					X		15
S17			X				X					X						X					X			08
S18				X					X					X					X					X		15
S19				X				X					X					X					X			11
S20			X					X					X					X					X			10
Total	54					48					46					52					46					**246**
Average	**2.7**					**2.4**					**2.3**					**2.6**					**2.3**					**12.3**

This time, students' reactions to the watching sequence were very interesting. They were able to infer the topic of the lesson from the pre-listening phase and relate it to the content of the short excerpt which caused them to react positively to the watching sequence and participate effectively in both this activity and the awareness-raising one. This latter focused on fostering students' understanding of elision and its frequent use in the English language. The examples were taken from the video excerpt and practiced in pairs. To broaden students' vocabulary in terms of the sexist segregation of women, the teacher provided them with a passage that highlighted this type of terminology.

During the speaking activity, students were divided into groups of five to simulate a TV debate on women's segregation in the Victorian era and assign a position (agreement or disagreement) to each member from a given list. Five minutes were allotted for task preparation, and another five for presentation. While a group is on stage, the audience must pay close attention in order to evaluate the presentation based on the criteria provided.

The competitive nature of this activity, combined with the topic's requirement for taking a stand and defending it, drives the student to an extremely high level of motivation. Female students in general were utterly engrossed with defending their gender position in the face of male students' nonchalance or support for segregation against women. The teacher was compelled to intervene on occasion to restore order and remind the students that this was just an activity. Some students were very skilled at using body language to defend their positions, including facial expressions, hand gestures, and eye movements, which made their speech sound very natural and, to some extent, native-like.

The majority of students provided a very generous vocabulary relying on the substantial amount of language presented in the handout and the video excerpt. In terms of spoken grammar, they appeared to have developed a certain maturity that reduces their mistakes, and when they eventuate, correction is immediate and without the teacher's signal.

They also seemed to have realised the value of ellipsis and relying on clause units rather than sentence units.

In terms of discourse management, the majority of students appeared to have gained confidence in themselves, as they were able to produce longer utterances and express their opinions with ease using cohesive and coherent English, as well as paralanguage such as the correct pitch and, as previously mentioned, body language.

Watching the video excerpts proved very beneficial in providing students with new information on how words are pronounced by native British English speakers at each new watching sequence. The emphasis of this session was on how the centenarian woman spoke RP English and how she used elision in certain positions of her utterances. The students found this amusing and enjoyed imitating her.

Likewise, the results for interactive communication were quite satisfactory. Students improved their ability to take and yield turns, to use politeness strategies, and to exchange information. For the most qualified (S3, S4, S6, S7, S13, S16 and S18), their speech appeared spontaneous, and they were skilled in varying the ways in which they asked for clarification.

Obviously, the development of the various aspects that master the speaking skill assisted the students in becoming more knowledgeable and flexible in dealing with mistakes, both in terms of correction and how they perceive making mistakes as natural and no longer embarrassing. As a result, except for a few weak students (S2 and S14), relying on the teacher's or peers' assistance is becoming increasingly rare. However, observation revealed that a few students (S2, S14, and S17) did not appear to be fully immersed in the classroom environment and continued to struggle with their poor performance in speaking English.

6.1.3.6.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Sixth Sessions

Table 45

Comparison of Sixth Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 6
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	1	1	07
S2	2	1	1	0	1	05
S3	2	2	3	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	2	3	2	2	12
S8	2	1	1	0	1	05
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	2	1	1	1	0	05
S12	2	1	2	1	2	08
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	2	1	1	0	1	05
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	2	2	1	1	1	07
S20	2	1	2	1	2	08
Total	41	27	34	21	24	147
Average	**2.05**	**1.35**	**1.7**	**1.05**	**1.2**	**7.35**

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 6
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	2	2	2	2	10
S2	2	2	1	2	1	08
S3	3	3	3	3	3	15
S4	3	3	3	3	3	15
S5	2	2	2	2	2	10
S6	3	3	3	3	3	15
S7	4	3	3	4	3	17
S8	2	2	2	2	2	10
S9	3	2	3	3	2	13
S10	3	3	3	3	2	14
S11	3	2	2	3	2	12
S12	3	2	2	2	2	11
S13	3	3	3	3	3	15
S14	2	2	1	2	1	08
S15	3	3	2	3	3	14
S16	3	3	3	3	3	15
S17	2	1	1	2	2	08
S18	3	3	3	3	3	15
S19	3	2	2	2	2	11
S20	2	2	2	2	2	10
Total	54	48	46	52	46	**246**
Average	**2.7**	**2.4**	**2.3**	**2.6**	**2.3**	**12.3**

Students' positive reactions to the introduction of the listening instruction and the activities based on the short video excerpt are more pronounced when comparing results of the sixth session of the listening-free and listening-based stages (see Table 45 above). The overall average of students' English-speaking performance increased from 7.35 to 12.3, which is a significant improvement. In particular, students felt more assisted in their learning and gained confidence in their abilities. They also appear to no longer care about making mistakes in front of others, as they have become more capable of regulating their lapses; and, if not, they have shown acceptance and satisfaction in receiving corrections from others.

The average for spoken grammar and vocabulary increased from 2.05 to 2.7. The shift from 1.35 to 2.4 seems to be more noticeable in discourse management. The exposition to the video excerpts seemed very fruitful in terms of pronunciation, despite being brief. Students' scores increased from 1.7 to 2.3. In terms of interactive communication, students performed admirably, with the average increasing from 1.05 to 2.6. Also, students' abilities to correct their mistakes using their own knowledge increased significantly from 1.2 to 2.3 as previously stated.

6.1.3.7. Seventh Session Observation Data

The seventh lesson's main topic is idioms and their significance in the English language. This unique language is thought to be a reflection of the culture of English speakers. Because of their frequent use in both written and spoken language, teachers have no choice but to include them in their curricula, especially if effective natural English speaking is required. After explaining the meaning and significance of these forms of language, the teacher asked the students to compare idioms and proverbs as a warm-up activity. The aim is to enlarge students' knowledge, keep connectivity with the previous lectures and prepare students for the next phases.

During the listening phase, students watched a short video excerpt of a young teacher explaining the importance of this type of English language features and suggesting some very common British idioms and their meanings. Students were instructed to carefully watch the excerpt in order to adequately explain each of the idioms listed in the handout. They were ecstatic every time the teacher paused the video and asked them to guess what the next idiom meant. This is because, with this type of language, the meaning of the entire idiom differs greatly from the meanings of the individual words, making it unique and exciting to learn.

The automaticity activity of this session took the form of a competition game and was based, contrary to habit, on individual work. Based on a definition of what an anecdote is presented in Handout 7, students were asked to focus on one idiom from the long list presented in the handout and attempt to construct an anecdote in which events revolve around the meaning of the chosen idiom, which must be kept secret. The other students attempt to guess the idiom in question in order to earn points. This time, the students are expected to bear the burden of preparing and presenting their work in front of an audience on their own. Achievements are shown in the coming observation grid:

After six sessions, the teacher expected the students to be prepared to be evaluated on their individual presentations without relying on their peers. The overall average of students' English-speaking performances (12.05) showed a slight decrease when compared to students' achievements in the previous session (the sixth) of this stage (12.3).

Individual examination of the results, however, revealed that students' English-speaking skills vary between decline and progression. While some students maintained their grades (S2, S5, S15, S16, S17, and S20) or improved (S3, S7, S12, S16, and S18), others fell slightly (S 4, S6, S8, S9, S10, S11, S14, and S19), particularly in discourse management and interactive communication. While some students had difficulty maintaining speech coherence throughout continued speech, marked relatively long pauses, and used very few discourse

Table 46

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Seventh Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 07
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1			X				X						X					X					X			09
S2			X					X				X						X				X				08
S3				X					X					X						X				X		16
S4				X					X					X				X						X		14
S5			X					X					X					X					X			10
S6				X				X						X					X					X		14
S7					X					X					X				X					X		18
S8			X				X						X					X					X			09
S9				X				X						X				X					X			12
S10				X				X						X					X				X			13
S11			X					X					X					X					X			10
S12				X					X				X					X					X			12
S13				X					X						X				X					X		16
S14			X				X					X						X				X				07
S15				X				X						X					X					X		14
S16				X					X					X					X					X		15
S17			X				X					X						X					X			08
S18				X						X				X					X					X		16
S19			X					X					X					X					X			10
S20			X					X					X					X					X			10
Total	52					45					49					49					46					241
Average	2.6					2.25					2.45					2.45					2.3					12.05

markers, others had difficulty answering questions asked by their peers when they tried to guess the idiom, or were unable to ask correct questions and interact easily with their friends when they were off stage.

The high demand of the activity is most likely to blame for this decline. For those students, the relatively short time allotted for the anecdote preparation (10mn) and presentation (2mn) was quite challenging. Another potential impediment is students' shyness and fear of speaking in front of an audience, which becomes more noticeable in individual presentations (S8, S11 and S19).

Some students excelled in their presentations and demonstrated a strong command of the five indicators of the English-speaking skill (S3, S13 and S18). One student (S7) out of twenty received an 18 because she demonstrated a high degree of autonomy and was able to speak very fluent English. However, the competitive aspect of the activity, combined with the fact that it is funny because it relies on guessing the related idiom, kept students' interest and motivation high until the session's conclusion. Applause and accolades were given every time a good answer was given.

6.1.3.7.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Seventh Sessions

Even though the activity of the seventh session of the listening-free stage was quite attractive and appealing, the results were far from satisfactory when compared to the seventh session of the listening-based stage. As shown in the tables above, the overall average shifted from 7.75 to 12.05, with a significant shift in all of the observation grid's indicators. The averages in vocabulary and grammar increased from 1.85 to 2.6; in discourse management from 1.35 to 2.25; in pronunciation from 1.7 to 2.45; in interactive communication from 1.45 to 2.45; and in self-correction from 1.4 to 2.3.

Table 47

Comparison of Seventh Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 7
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	1	1	07
S2	1	1	1	1	2	06
S3	2	2	3	3	2	12
S4	2	2	2	2	2	10
S5	2	1	1	1	1	06
S6	2	2	2	1	2	09
S7	3	2	3	3	2	13
S8	1	1	1	1	1	05
S9	2	1	1	1	1	06
S10	2	2	1	1	0	06
S11	2	1	1	2	1	07
S12	2	1	2	1	2	08
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	1	1	04
S15	1	1	1	1	1	05
S16	2	1	2	1	1	07
S17	2	1	1	1	1	06
S18	3	2	3	3	2	13
S19	1	2	1	1	1	06
S20	2	1	2	1	2	08
Total	37	27	34	29	28	155
Average	1.85	1.35	1.7	1.45	1.4	7.75

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 7
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	2	2	2	09
S2	2	2	1	2	1	08
S3	3	3	3	4	3	16
S4	3	3	3	2	3	14
S5	2	2	2	2	2	10
S6	3	2	3	3	3	14
S7	4	4	4	3	3	18
S8	2	1	2	2	2	09
S9	3	2	3	2	2	12
S10	3	2	3	3	2	13
S11	2	2	2	2	2	10
S12	3	3	2	2	2	12
S13	3	3	4	3	3	16
S14	2	1	1	2	1	07
S15	3	2	3	3	3	14
S16	3	3	3	3	3	15
S17	2	1	1	2	2	08
S18	3	4	3	3	3	16
S19	2	2	2	2	2	10
S20	2	2	2	2	2	10
Total	52	45	49	49	46	241
Average	2.6	2.25	2.45	2.45	2.3	12.05

As a result, simply introducing a good activity that can captivate students' attention and motivate them is not always effective in developing students' English-speaking skills. In counterpart, relying on a listening instruction through video extracts where students can experience some listening and focus on some special aspects of the language, in addition to related activities that gradually help the students analyse and memorise the different information assists better students in developing their speaking capacities.

6.1.3.8. Eighth Session Observation Data

The importance of phrasal verbs in the English language and culture was the teacher's main concern in the eighth session. She began the session with a brief explanation and exemplification of these important aspects of English. Students were instructed to select a phrasal verb and use it in a meaningful example.

The listening phase included two activities based on a video excerpt of a young man describing his morning routine. The first was a comprehension activity in which students were asked to grasp the main idea of the video excerpt's content. The second, an awareness-raising activity, required students to listen to the excerpt again in order to complete the script of the young man's speech with the appropriate phrasal verbs. The teacher drew the students' attention to the frequent use of this speaker of elision in order to emphasise the importance of using such phonological phenomenon to produce natural English.

Two more activities were planned for the speaking phase. First, each student was asked to describe his or her morning routine to a classmate using as many phrasal verbs as possible. This pair work was presented in the form of a competitive game, which the students thoroughly enjoyed. The teacher then suggested another exciting game, 'the Balloon Debate,' in which students were supposed to use as many phrasal verbs as possible in their

conversation in order to stay safe and on the balloon (see Chapter 4). The students' performance in this activity was used to evaluate their speaking ability in the present session.

This time around, the motivation was the highest of all. It was an amazing experience for both the teacher and the students because of the competitive nature of the activity and how funny it was. Very excited, the students were challenging each other and struggling to persuade the teacher (the hot-air balloon owner) to keep them on board by introducing the maximum number of phrasal verbs from the handout list each time it was their turn. The arguments should be coherent and well-pronounced, and the phrasal verbs used should correspond to the meaning of what is being said.

The students appeared to speak English with ease, as if they had forgotten that this was just an activity and that the hot-air balloon was just the teacher. Even if the activity was an individual assignment, students did not exhibit the same difficulties as in the seventh session. This is most likely due to the fact that the students, while committed to speaking alone, were not standing alone on stage this time, which provided them with a kind of insurance and saved them from shyness and facing the audience complexes.

As indicated by the observation grid above, the overall average of this session (13.35) is the highest compared to the previous session. This is most likely due to the students' enthusiastic participation in the suggested activity, as previously stated. We saw an increase in all of the observation grid's indicators, which were as follows: Grammar and vocabulary (3.2), Pronunciation (2.65), Interactive communication (2.55), self-correction (2.5), and discourse management (2.45). The majority of students' grades improved; only six students scored the same as the previous session (S3, S4, S7, S9, S12 and S15).

Table 48

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Eighth Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 08
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1				X				X					X					X					X			11
S2				X				X					X					X					X			11
S3				X						X				X					X					X		16
S4				X					X					X				X						X		14
S5				X				X					X					X					X			11
S6				X				X						X					X						X	15
S7					X				X						X					X				X		18
S8				X				X					X					X					X			11
S9				X				X						X				X					X			12
S10				X				X						X					X					X		14
S11				X				X					X						X					X		13
S12				X					X				X					X					X			12
S13					X				X						X				X					X		17
S14				X				X					X					X				X				10
S15				X				X						X					X					X		14
S16					X				X					X					X					X		16
S17				X				X				X						X					X			10
S18					X					X				X					X					X		17
S19				X				X						X					X				X			13
S20				X				X						X				X					X			12
Total	64					49					53					51					50					**267**
Average	**3.2**					**2.45**					**2.65**					**2.55**					**2.5**					**13.35**

To elaborate, the majority of students improved significantly in terms of spoken grammar, using clause-unites and conjugating verbs properly in the correct tense; and in terms of vocabulary, using a broader range of words than before and employing the targeted phrasal verbs correctly in addition to previously acquired knowledge (e.g., speech acts). Speaking pauses became shorter and less frequent, and students appeared to have learned a lot about using ellipsis and pause fillers by imitating the speakers in the video extracts. As a result, with each new session, students' English became more effective and closer to natives.

These enhancements assisted students in becoming more efficient in easily paraphrasing and rephrasing their utterances. This refers to their ability to correct mistakes and refine their style whenever needed. The students appear more confident and more autonomous in their learning and production of the English language.

The majority of students' speech appeared to gain cohesion and coherence, and they became more adept at using paralinguistic tools such as body language (hand gestures and eye movement) and pitch rise and fall. Some students who had initially good speaking skills improved to the point where they could speak English as if it was their native language.

Throughout the session, students interact in English within the activities or peripherally when commenting on the video content or chatting on occasion as when they tried to imitate the video speaker's use of elision. It was no longer necessary for the teacher to remind students to speak in English and avoid using another language.

Table 49

Comparison of Eighth Session Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 8
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	0	2	1	0	04
S2	1	1	1	2	2	07
S3	2	2	3	3	2	12
S4	1	2	2	2	2	09
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	1	2	2	1	1	07
S7	2	2	3	3	2	12
S8	1	0	1	1	0	03
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	0	05
S11	1	1	1	2	1	06
S12	1	1	2	1	2	07
S13	2	2	3	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	1	1	04
S15	1	1	1	2	1	06
S16	1	0	2	1	0	04
S17	1	1	1	1	1	05
S18	2	2	3	3	2	12
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	2	1	1	06
Total	25	22	34	31	23	135
Average	1.25	1.1	1.7	1.55	1.15	6.75

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 8
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	3	2	2	2	2	11
S2	3	2	2	2	2	11
S3	3	4	3	3	3	16
S4	3	3	3	2	3	14
S5	3	2	2	2	2	11
S6	3	2	3	3	4	15
S7	4	3	4	4	3	18
S8	3	2	2	2	2	11
S9	3	2	3	2	2	12
S10	3	2	3	3	3	14
S11	3	2	2	3	3	13
S12	3	3	2	2	2	12
S13	4	3	4	3	3	17
S14	3	2	2	2	1	10
S15	3	2	3	3	3	14
S16	4	3	3	3	3	16
S17	3	2	1	2	2	10
S18	4	4	3	3	3	17
S19	3	2	3	3	2	13
S20	3	2	3	2	2	12
Total	64	49	53	51	50	267
Average	3.2	2.45	2.65	2.55	2.5	13.35

6.1.3.8.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Eighth Sessions

In the absence of the vocabulary support provided by the handout or the video extract, students appeared lost and unable to give a coherent effective talk in English. This is a reference to the students' dismal performance in the eighth session of the listening-free stage. Yet, even though the topic remained the same, the students' descriptions of their morning routines were far superior to the eighth session of the first stage.

This time, the overall average was 13.35, up from 6.75 previously. All of the indicators on the observation grid showed significant changes. The average in grammar, vocabulary, and discourse management increased more than twice as much, from 1.25 to 3.2 and from 1.1 to 2.45, respectively. Similarly, we noticed an increase in pronunciation from 1.7 to 2.65, in interactive communication from 1.55 to 2.55, and from 1.15 to 2.5 in self-correction.

These findings demonstrated that the students benefited from listening instruction and the introduction of short video excerpts. In terms of pronunciation, the majority appeared to have overcome the difficulties of pronouncing single words; better, some students (S3, S6, S7, S13, S16 and S18) were able to produce an elegant English using elision, pitch rise and fall, and proper intonation. They also became more autonomous and had less difficulty correcting their errors.

Furthermore, despite sharing the same subject as the first stage's eighth session and being initially motivating, the students greatly appreciated the activity of the second stage's eighth session. This is because it did not expose students to confronting the audience alone as the protagonist did.

6.1.3.9. Ninth and Tenth Sessions Observation Data

To accommodate all twenty students and give them enough time to assimilate the given data and prepare their speeches, the topic was split into two sessions. Another reason is to maintain the same session division as in the first stage so that students' achievements can be evaluated using the same criteria. So, the main goal of the ninth and tenth sessions was to learn about the importance of using metaphor to refine style and present a speech using the sparklines technique. So, the main goal of the ninth and tenth sessions was to learn about the importance of using metaphor to refine style and present a speech using the sparklines technique.

In the listening phase, the students listened to the first part (from 00 to 02:19mn) of the famous speech 'I Have a Dream' of Martin Luther King Jr. before being assigned to two activities: a listening comprehension and an awareness-raising activity. During the second, the students' attention was raised to underline some subtle differences between the British and American English. The teacher also drew their attention to the most notable features of the Sparklines speech, such as the intentional overuse of repetitions of some salient parts of the language, the use of stress to emphasise certain words or syllables, the relatively long pauses, the use of metaphors, and the use of rhyme to give the speech a unique rhythm.

Furthermore, after hearing the first part of the speech, students were required to complete the orator's speech with the appropriate missing words. They were then expected to find metaphors and, at the very least, a phrasal verb to draw their attention to the significance and frequency of these language features in English in general, and in public speeches in particular.

Table 50

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Ninth and Tenth Sessions

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 09&10
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1				X				X						X				X					X			12
S2				X				X					X					X					X			11
S3					X					X				X						X				X		18
S4				X					X					X				X						X		14
S5				X				X					X					X					X			11
S6					X				X					X					X						X	17
S7					X				X						X					X				X		18
S8				X				X					X					X					X			11
S9				X					X					X					X					X		15
S10					X				X					X					X					X		16
S11				X				X					X						X					X		13
S12				X					X					X				X					X			13
S13					X				X						X					X				X		18
S14				X				X					X					X					X			11
S15				X					X					X					X					X		15
S16					X				X					X					X					X		16
S17				X				X					X					X					X			11
S18					X					X				X						X					X	18
S19				X					X					X					X					X		14
S20				X				X						X				X					X			12
Total	67					54					56					55					61					**293**
Average	**3.35**					**2.7**					**2.8**					**2.75**					**3.05**					**14.65**

The speaking phase consisted of two activities: the appropriation activity, which concluded the ninth session, and the automaticity activity, which lasted the entire tenth session. The first task required students to work in pairs and carefully consider an expression said by Martin Luther King Jr. before imitating the orator's way of speaking (pitch, stress, repetitions, rhyme, and the American English black accent). To encourage the competitive spirit and enhance motivation, students were asked to rate each other's work, taking into account pronunciation, stress, simulation, and pauses. They were highly motivated and tried their hardest to be persuasive and performing in English.

The automaticity activity, on the other hand, required students to act as public speakers and present a speech in no more than three minutes using all of the previously seen Sparklines style features. This activity was used to assess students' achievements in regard to the five indicators of the observation grid (Results are shown in Table 50).

The audience was encouraged to express excitement and approval through hubbub and clapping. The students liked the idea of being a leader and preaching their ideas in front of a supporting crowd; especially since they were imitating *Hirak* leaders who were popular at the time.

Students were given twenty minutes to prepare their speeches this time, as previously stated. Their presentations and performances were both linguistically and persuasively excellent. The classroom was transformed into a sort of square where the audience gathered to applaud and support the public speaker. The experience was unquestionably worthwhile.

The overall average reached 14.65 as a result of significant increases in all other indicators: Grammar and vocabulary 3.35; discourse management 2.7; Pronunciation 2.8; interactive communication 2.75; and Self correction 3.05, with the first and last indicators ranging first.

Table 51

Comparison of Ninth and Tenth Sessions Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 9&10
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	2	1	1	1	1	06
S2	2	1	1	1	1	06
S3	3	2	1	2	2	10
S4	2	2	2	2	1	09
S5	1	1	1	1	1	05
S6	2	1	2	1	1	07
S7	4	3	3	2	2	14
S8	2	1	1	1	1	06
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	1	06
S11	1	1	1	1	1	05
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	1	1	1	1	1	05
S15	2	1	1	1	1	06
S16	2	1	1	1	1	06
S17	2	1	1	1	1	06
S18	3	3	3	3	2	14
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	1	1	1	05
Total	39	27	27	26	24	143
Average	1.95	1.35	1.35	1.3	1.2	7.15

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 9&10
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	3	2	3	2	2	12
S2	3	2	2	2	2	11
S3	4	4	3	4	3	18
S4	3	3	3	2	3	14
S5	3	2	2	2	2	11
S6	4	3	3	3	4	17
S7	4	3	4	4	3	18
S8	3	2	2	2	2	11
S9	3	3	3	3	3	15
S10	4	3	3	3	3	16
S11	3	2	2	3	3	13
S12	3	3	3	2	2	13
S13	4	3	4	4	3	18
S14	3	2	2	2	2	11
S15	3	3	3	3	3	15
S16	4	3	3	3	3	16
S17	3	2	2	2	2	11
S18	4	4	3	4	3	18
S19	3	3	3	3	2	14
S20	3	2	3	2	2	12
Total	67	54	56	55	61	293
Average	3.35	2.7	2.8	2.75	3.05	14.65

And, despite the fact that this activity requires students to work individually to produce long utterances and act as a professional orator, it did not appear to pose a problem in terms of facing the audience. The majority of students even excelled at attracting attention, being very persuasive, presenting brilliant ideas, and speaking effectively and autonomously. More specifically, the majority of them produced a type of natural-like English full of false starts, hesitation, body language, emphasising and repeating specific parts of the speech, and playing with pitch and rhythm raise and fall. Some students in the audience were quite adept at using pause fillers as alternatives for 'yes,' such as 'right!' as well as Mhm! Also, their speeches were refined with the use of metaphors as ‘Freedom to Algerians’ is water to the thirsty’ and ‘justice is the heart of the social machine’ among many others. In all, the students speaking skill continued to refine from a session to another.

6.1.3.9.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages’ Ninth and Tenth Sessions

The second stage’s ninth and tenth sessions results bubbled from the first stages. Results showed that the difference is wide large and shifted from 7.15 to reach 14.65. Respectively, students’ achievements moved significantly from 1.95 to 3.35 in grammar and vocabulary; from 1.35 to 2.7 in discourse management; from 1.35 to 2.8 in pronunciation; from 1.3 to 2.75 in interactive communication; and from 1.2 to 3.05 in self-correction.

Despite the fact that the topic and activity were the same in both stages, the results revealed a remarkable improvement in students’ speaking abilities and autonomy. The poor performance in the first stage, which was characterised by a lack of vocabulary and mastery of spoken grammar, poor pronunciation, a lack of interactive communication techniques, and problems with discourse management, appeared to have improved during the listening-based stage sessions. Their English speaking became richer and more flexible to the point where they could easily paraphrase and correct the majority of their mistakes on their own. In

addition, they appear to becoming much more professional in using some features of natural speaking such as hesitation and pause fillers, as well as the correct use of some phonological features such as pitch and stress. They even seemed to have overcome the challenge of speaking in front of others and appeared to be more at ease on stage.

It is worth noting that students' high scores, when compared to previous sessions of the second stage, may be due to the fact that they were given enough time to think about what to say in this session. One might think that this does not correspond to the demands of everyday English conversation. It should not be forgotten, however, that students are still learning and that English is not limited to daily conversations, as it may be used in presentations and speeches, which require some preparation of what to say.

6.1.3.10. Eleventh Session Observation Data

The eleventh session's main topic was the In Media Res storytelling technique. This is primarily concerned with telling short stories in a way that captures the audience's attention and keeps them eager to reach the end and learn the resolution. The teacher describes this technique and its most distinguishing characteristics before briefly reminding students of the importance of discourse markers in storytelling and providing them with a list of the most common ones. She also briefly reminded them of the importance of practising connected speech and glottal stops in order to sound like natives. Students were encouraged to consult the Handout11 if they needed additional information. The teacher then requested that the students compare the In Media Res and Sparklines techniques.

During the listening phase, the teacher showed a three-part video about the In Media Res technique. The first segment involved students in a listening comprehension activity.

Table 52

*Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Eleventh Session***.**

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 11
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1				X				X					X					X					X			11
S2			X				X						X					X					X			09
S3					X				X						X				X					X		17
S4				X					X					X				X						X		14
S5				X			X						X					X					X			10
S6				X					X					X					X					X		15
S7					X				X					X						X						X	18
S8				X			X						X					X					X			10
S9				X					X				X						X					X		14
S10				X					X					X					X					X		15
S11				X				X					X					X					X			11
S12				X					X					X				X					X			13
S13					X				X						X					X				X		18
S14			X					X					X					X					X			10
S15				X					X					X				X						X		14
S16				X					X					X					X					X		15
S17				X				X				X						X					X			10
S18					X				X					X						X					X	18
S19				X				X					X					X					X			11
S20				X			X						X					X					X			10
Total	66					47					51					51					52					267
Average	3.3					2.35					2.55					2.55					2.6					13.35

The second aimed at raising students' awareness of the importance of discourse markers in spoken English in general, and storytelling in particular. Furthermore, the students were given a list of five words (fanaticism, bullying, stereotype, animosity, and dogmatism) and asked to match them to the story. With the third segment, students were asked to complete a sentence and practise it exactly as shown in the video excerpt (after watching the sequence where the meant sentence is uttered).

The speaking activity of this lesson required the students to tell a short story based on two given statements and following the In Media Res technique. They were asked to take into consideration the practice of glottal stop and connected speech in addition to the use of speech connectors.

In general, the students showed interest towards the topic and the video extract of this lesson. Some students reported finally understanding why the teacher had shown them the intended extract in previous session, referring to the eleventh session of the listening-free stage. They were very attentive during the listening phase and, as usual, took notes without the teacher's request. This is because they predicted the type of questions the teacher would ask and wanted to be the first to answer them; thus, feeding the competitive spirit that characterised the listening-based stage. Another reason is probably to save time, especially since the teacher was always urging them to complete the tasks on time. The teacher's goal is to keep the students engaged throughout the session in order to avoid timeouts and chattering. More importantly, condensing students' opportunities to interact in English and placing them in situations similar to those they are likely to encounter in real-life interactions: dealing with time constraints.

The students liked the speaking activity. Generally, female students enjoyed the first statement (Zak Ibrahim's mother) whereas males found the second (Zak Ibrahim's father) more suitable. The type of In Media Ress storytelling piqued their interest, and they

immediately began working on the broad outlines of their stories in order to complete them in the five minutes allotted.

The findings revealed that students' overall achievements were satisfactory (13.35). The majority of the stories were intriguing and appealing. The students remained committed to their progress in terms of vocabulary and spoken grammar (3.3). Their linguistic abilities have grown significantly, and they no longer struggle to find words or construct meaningful clauses to express themselves. In addition to their existing vocabulary, the language of the extract and the handout provided them with a large number of words and expressions that they could use to complete the various activities, including the speaking activity.

Students' achievements in discourse management were rated 2.35. Except for four students (S2, S5, S8, and S20), the majority were able to maintain long stamina in producing extracted coherent sentences and connecting them together using as many speech connectors as possible, as requested. This was also useful in emphasising the various parts of the story (introduction, body and conclusion). The majority of the presentations clearly displayed the four P's (people, plot, place, and purpose). The paralanguage was prevalent in the presentations. Skilled students were very generous in introducing body language, even walking from side to side while telling the story, making their presentation appear very natural.

Similarly, the pronunciation results were satisfactory (2.55). The vast majority of students had acceptable pronunciation. With some accent issues that did not interfere with their language's intelligibility, the students were able to speak clear and appropriate English. The more competent ones succeeded to some extent in practising glottal stop; others (S3 and S13) even succeeded in clipping syllables and words in connected speech, imitating the American way of pronunciation (wanna for want to and gonna for going to). Students scored the same in interactive communication as they did in pronunciation (2.55). In terms of English

interaction, the students have come a long way. They appear to have no difficulty taking and yielding turns using appropriate language, such as using 'sorry, but...' to initiate their turn and show disagreement, for example. Similarly, some students (S7, S13, and S18) use discourse markers such as 'Yes, I take your point, but...' and 'By the way,' with ease.

When it comes to self-correction, students keep evolving and gaining in maturity and confidence. The students became more familiar with the new OE setting, including its three phases, the watching sequence, and the various activities introduced. They become more comfortable speaking English on their own while interacting with one another. They no longer show hesitation to participate in the various activities or fear of making mistakes and losing face in front of others.

In contrast, many among them, who were initially very timid and reticent, appeared more confident and even insisted on correcting their mistakes themselves by kindly preventing the audience (generally with a hand gesture) from assisting them until they found their words, paraphrased their utterances, or corrected their mistakes. If they failed corrections are welcomed without embarrassment.

6.1.3.10.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Eleventh Sessions

The gap was wider this time when comparing the eleventh sessions of the listening-free and listening-based stages. Students who previously showed partial or complete aversion to individual presentations appear to become more motivated, even eager, to speak and demonstrate their knowhow. They have grown in maturity and self-confidence as a result of the listening instruction, as previously stated.

Table 53

Comparison of Eleventh Sessions Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 11
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	1	1	1	05
S2	1	0	1	1	0	03
S3	3	2	1	2	2	10
S4	2	1	2	2	1	08
S5	1	1	1	1	0	04
S6	2	1	1	1	1	06
S7	4	3	3	2	2	14
S8	1	0	1	0	1	03
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	1	06
S11	1	1	1	1	1	05
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	1	0	1	0	0	02
S15	1	1	1	1	1	05
S16	1	1	1	1	0	04
S17	1	1	1	1	1	05
S18	3	3	3	2	2	13
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	1	1	0	04
Total	33	23	26	23	19	124
Average	1.65	1.15	1.3	1.15	0.95	6.2

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 11
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	3	2	2	2	2	11
S2	2	1	2	2	2	09
S3	4	3	4	3	3	17
S4	3	3	3	2	3	14
S5	3	1	2	2	2	10
S6	3	3	3	3	3	15
S7	4	3	3	4	4	18
S8	3	1	2	2	2	10
S9	3	3	2	3	3	14
S10	3	3	3	3	3	15
S11	3	2	2	2	2	11
S12	3	3	3	2	2	13
S13	4	3	4	4	3	18
S14	2	2	2	2	2	10
S15	3	3	3	2	3	14
S16	3	3	3	3	3	15
S17	3	2	1	2	2	10
S18	4	3	3	4	4	18
S19	3	2	2	2	2	11
S20	3	1	2	2	2	10
Total	66	47	51	51	52	267
Average	3.3	2.35	2.55	2.55	2.6	13.35

The overall average of students' speaking performances increased from 6.2 to 13.35 and the grades. The scores varied between 02 as the lowest and 14 as the highest in the first stage; and between 09 as the lowest and 18 as the highest in the second stage. The number of students who scored ten or higher increased significantly in the second stage, from four in the eleventh session of the first stage to nineteen.

The students' development of the English-speaking skill was noticed in all the indicators of the observation grid. There were no longer any significant problems with vocabulary and grammar, which explains the increase from 1.65 to 3.3. Significant improvements were also observed in discourse management (from 1.15 to 2.35), pronunciation (from 1.3 to 2.55), interactive communication (from 1.15 to 2.55), and self-correction (from 0.95 to 2.6).

The oral-expression class has become livelier and the students have grown more motivated and more self-assured. To show their interest in the course, some students watched the video extracts at home, others made the effort to watch the whole video (especially if it was a film) as an extra activity even if it was not required by the teacher.

6.1.3.11. Twelfth Session Observation Data

The twelfth lesson of the listening-based stage addressed an appealing topic: mass segregation (including fanaticism, stereotypes and Islamophobia). Initially chosen by the students in the very first session, this issue was thought to have a positive impact at least on students' motivation.

The pre-listening phase activity required students to extract information from visual clues in a set of given images in order to attribute to each its corresponding type of segregation (racial, religious, women or poor segregation). Similarly, they watched two short

video excerpts with the sound turned off and were asked to infer about the main topic and prepare for the next phases.

During the listening phase, the teacher planned two activities based on the previously shown video clips. The first activity, a listening comprehension, was designed to help students understand the main idea of the video content (Islamophobia) and answer some related questions. The second activity, an awareness-raising activity, aimed to broaden students' linguistic and phonological knowledge by focusing on specific expressions and how they were spoken in the video. This phase concluded with a brief reminder of the importance of metaphor, proverbs, and sayings in storytelling.

The automaticity activity of the speaking phase was a debate on the issue of mass segregation and its various facets (Islamophobia, fanaticism and stereotyping). Students were encouraged to share anecdotes about related situations they had experienced or witnessed, including as much prior acquired knowledge as possible. The importance of respecting one another while debating the issue and defending one's points of view was emphasised. The students were also shown how to use the language and paralinguistic hints (body language) to alternate turns without offending the other debate participants.

In general, the classroom atmosphere was one of the most dynamic; the students were very interested in the topic and were very engaged in the various activities. The listening comprehension activity was completed successfully, and the majority of students appeared to be no longer struggling to understand what was said in the video excerpts. They were pleased to learn the new expressions of the awareness-raising activity because, according to some, they like to sound like natives.

Table 54

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Twelfth Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 12
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1				X				X					X						X					X		13
S2			X					X					X					X					X			10
S3					X					X					X				X							X	19
S4				X					X					X					X					X		15
S5				X				X					X						X				X			12
S6					X					X				X					X					X		17
S7					X					X				X						X				X		18
S8				X				X					X					X					X			11
S9				X					X				X						X					X		14
S10					X				X					X					X					X		16
S11				X				X						X				X					X			12
S12				X					X					X					X					X		15
S13					X					X					X					X					X		19
S14			X					X					X					X					X			10
S15					X				X					X					X					X		16
S16				X					X					X					X					X		15
S17				X				X					X					X					X			11
S18					X					X				X							X					X	19
S19				X				X					X						X					X		13
S20				X				X					X						X				X			12
Total	65					56					53					58					55					287
Average	3.25					2.8					2.65					2.9					2.75					14.35

In general, the classroom atmosphere was one of the most dynamic; the students were very interested in the topic and were very engaged in the various activities. The listening comprehension activity was completed successfully, and the majority of students appeared to be no longer struggling to understand what was said in the video excerpts. They were pleased to learn the new expressions of the awareness-raising activity because, according to some, they like to sound like natives.

The speaking activity went off without a hitch. All of the students took part in the debate in roughly equal numbers. Some even shared anecdotes about situations they experienced or witnessed involving Muslim segregation, particularly in foreign countries. Others reported on news events, particularly those concerning the French people's reaction to women wearing Hijab and Burkini as a result of the rise of the phenomenon of Islamophobia.

With the exception of two students (S2 and S14), the vast majority were able to use a very satisfactory language rich in vocabulary and well-structured according to the simple rules of spoken grammar, which explains the high score in the vocabulary and grammar indicator (3.25). Their English language became more intelligible and elegant through the use of discourse markers, as well as their ability to lengthen their speech over several coherent clauses, which explains their satisfactory score of 2.8 in discourse management.

Moreover, the students appear to have made significant progress in Pronunciation as a result of the listening instruction, which included video watching sequences and various related activities, as well as the ongoing interaction throughout the oral-expression session (2.8). Each session's awareness-raising activity focused on a different aspect of the language and assisted students in developing and practising phonetic knowledge. However, some students (S2, S8, S14, and S17) continued to have problems with connected-speech pronunciation (elision and clause stress), but had less trouble with isolated-word pronunciation.

And, because speaking and interacting in English is the primary goal of the second stage oral-expression, the teacher always prioritised interactive communication in the course objectives. To put it another way, an effort was made to keep students speaking and interacting in English as much as possible. During this session, the students learned how to manifest the end of their terns while speaking and how to show willingness to take turns in the debate both *linguistically* (the necessary words and expressions) and *paralinguistically* (using body language). The students' performance in terms of interactive communication was quite satisfactory (2.9).

Finally, students appeared to become more self-confident and self-regulated in terms of interactive communication. To put it another way, the acquired knowledge in the various aspects of spoken English, combined with their listening, which became more refined and responsive, helped them gain maturity and self-confidence. The majority of students were more willing to correct their mistakes or paraphrase their speeches on their own, shamelessly and without embarrassment, which explains their relatively high self-correction score (2.75). In short, it is clear that students' speaking abilities improved progressively over the course of the sessions.

6.1.3.11.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Twelfth Sessions

It is clear that students' speaking abilities underwent a great transformation during the current study's listening-based instruction. Even if they had chosen the topic at the outset, students' English-speaking performances in the twelfth session of the listening-free stage were far from being satisfactory. However, things appeared to have changed significantly since then; the students who demonstrated reluctance and poor participation in the debate about Islamophobia in the first stage appeared to be able to hold an interesting debate in terms of ideas discussion, the spoken English quality, and the manner in which the debate was held.

Table 55

Comparison of Twelfth Sessions Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 12
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	1	1	1	05
S2	0	0	0	0	0	00
S3	3	2	2	2	2	11
S4	2	2	2	2	1	09
S5	1	1	1	0	1	04
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	4	3	3	2	2	14
S8	0	0	0	0	0	00
S9	1	1	1	1	1	05
S10	2	1	1	1	1	06
S11	1	0	1	1	0	03
S12	2	1	1	1	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	0	0	0	0	0	00
S15	2	1	1	2	1	07
S16	1	1	1	1	1	05
S17	0	0	0	0	0	00
S18	3	3	3	3	2	14
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	0	0	0	0	0	00
Total	29	22	23	21	18	113
Average	1.45	1.1	1.15	1.05	0.9	5.65

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 12
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	3	2	2	3	3	13
S2	2	2	2	2	2	10
S3	4	4	4	3	4	19
S4	3	3	3	3	3	15
S5	3	2	2	3	2	12
S6	4	4	3	3	3	17
S7	4	4	3	4	3	18
S8	3	2	2	2	2	11
S9	3	3	2	3	3	14
S10	4	3	3	3	3	16
S11	3	2	3	2	2	12
S12	3	3	3	3	3	15
S13	4	4	4	4	3	19
S14	1	2	2	2	2	10
S15	4	3	3	3	3	16
S16	3	3	3	3	3	15
S17	3	3	2	2	2	11
S18	4	4	3	4	4	19
S19	3	2	2	3	3	13
S20	3	2	2	3	2	12
Total	65	56	53	58	55	287
Average	3.25	2.8	2.65	2.9	2.75	14.35

As a result, the drastic increase in the overall score of students' English-speaking abilities (from 5.65 to 14.35) appears to be quite obvious.

Students' achievements increased significantly between the twelfth sessions of both stages, rising from 1.45 to 3.25 in grammar and vocabulary; from 1.1 to 2.8 in discourse management; from 1.15 to 2.65 in pronunciation; from 1.05 to 2.9 in interactive communication; and from 0.9 to 2.75 in self-correction. All the students scored above the average in the second stage against only four in the first stage.

Weak students who were hesitant to participate in the debate of the twelfth lesson of the first stage (which justifies the presence of null marks) appeared to have made significant progress in terms of their English-speaking skills. The grades assigned to those students changed as follows: from 00 to 10 for S2; from 00 to 11 for S8; from 00 to 10 for S14; from 00 to 11 for S20; and from 00 to 12 for S20.

Moreover, the majority of those students are shy by nature and used to avoid participating in the suggested activities for fear of losing face and being embarrassed. Consequently, they preferred to remain in the shadows and hide behind the toughest and most skilled. Yet, during the listening-based stage, they appeared to have gained more self-confidence and autonomy because they worked hard to keep up with their peers and gained a certain amount of knowledge from the new instruction, which helped them to improve their speaking skills.

In all, the mournful atmosphere that characterised the twelfth session of the listening-free stage had been transformed into a livelier atmosphere in the listening-based stage's session.

6.1.3.12. Thirteenth Session Observation Data

The teacher thought it would be appropriate for the final session of the listening-based stage, as well as the current research in general, to remind students of some important features of everyday English conversations while also highlighting some new ones in order to develop their knowledge and help them develop their English-speaking skills. This was also supposed to signal the end of the current experimental phase of research. Pause fillers, chunks, and the type of vague language that is common in English speaking in general, and English conversations in particular, are among the features intended.

The purpose of the pre-listening activity was to draw students' attention to the differences between how a spoken conversation would appear compared to its written version. This primarily refers to the overuse of ellipsis and the use of clause units instead of sentence units. In addition to the use of coded and illusory language, which implies the use of very few words, sometimes just hints, especially when the speakers are close or know each other. This activity piqued the students' interest and kept them engaged.

The listening phase included two activities. During the first activity, the students were shown a short video excerpt twice. They first watched the excerpt at normal speed to compare the information gathered from visual clues to that gathered from sound and get a general idea of the excerpt's content. Second, they were engaged in a slower-paced listening activity with the image turned off to encourage them to complete the conversation script solely using their listening abilities. Despite the fact that this activity was somewhat difficult because it mainly relied on listening, the students' commitment and responses were outstanding.

Second, in an awareness-raising activity, students were asked to work in groups and use their imaginations to convert a portion of the conversation (8-15) from its spoken form to its most likely appropriate written version. This implies that longer, complete sentences, rather than elliptic ones, should be used, and that as much vague language as possible should be avoided.

Table 56

Observation Grid of the Listening-Based Stage Thirteenth Session

STAGE: Listening-based	The Speaking Skill																									SESSION: 13
Indicators & scale / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary					Discourse Management					Pronunciation					Interactive Communication					Self-correction					G/20
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	
S1				X					X				X						X					X		14
S2				X					X				X					X					X			12
S3					X					X					X				X							X	19
S4				X					X					X					X					X		15
S5				X				X					X						X				X			12
S6					X					X				X					X						X	18
S7					X					X				X						X				X		18
S8				X				X					X					X					X			11
S9				X					X					X					X					X		15
S10					X				X					X					X						X	17
S11				X					X					X					X				X			14
S12				X					X					X					X					X		15
S13					X					X				X						X					X	19
S14			X					X					X					X					X			10
S15					X				X					X					X					X		16
S16				X					X					X					X					X		15
S17				X				X					X					X					X			11
S18					X					X				X						X					X	19
S19				X					X					X					X					X		15
S20				X					X				X						X				X			13
Total	66					61					54					59					58					298
Average	3.3					3.05					2.7					2.95					2.9					14.9

Students' responses matched the teacher's expectations in a highly competitive and creative classroom environment. Working in groups of three students, the speaking activity for this lesson required each group to construct a dialogue similar to, but not identical to, the one seen in the video excerpt, in which they provided a different description of a new assailant who was essentially a classmate but remained unknown to the audience (the other groups) who attempted to guess who it was about. Students' motivation and competitiveness were at an all-time high, and their presentations were more than satisfactory.

As shown in the above observation grid for the thirteenth session, the overall average of students' speaking skill reached 14.9, the highest since the beginning of the listening-based stage and even the free-listening stage.

The students were so motivated that they anticipated the activities, took notes, and appeared to be prepared to deal with whatever task arose during the session. They expressed gratitude for the video selection, as they had done previously in the thirteenth session of the listening-free stage, but this time with a greater emphasis on the English language and how it was used. This includes the acquisition of words and expressions that are very similar to English, as well as how the speakers managed to pronounce them, including accent, stress, and pitch rise and fall. This explains their acceptable average pronunciation score of 2.7.

Similarly, they appeared to enjoy the speaking phase's activity. Some groups delivered well-crafted dialogues that included genuine descriptions of their classmates as well as a captivating simulation of their roles. They were successful in imitating the video extract speakers' English pronunciation, facial expressions, and walking style. When a group was on stage, the others paid close attention to every word and gesture in order to identify the assailant before the others and win a point. The level of competition was at an all-time high.

If someone was successful in revealing the identity of the assailant, the students were permitted to applaud, which helped to lighten the course and create a friendly and very natural atmosphere that greatly aided the students in acting their roles and performing their spoken English without hesitation or fear of embarrassing themselves in front of others.

Furthermore, the students' English-speaking ability appeared to mature and strengthen from one session to the next. This was due, first and foremost, to their obvious desire to improve their English speaking and positive reactions to the listening-speaking instruction, including videos and various activities. Furthermore, the language proffered by each new session, both in the video excerpt and the various handouts, significantly increased the students' vocabulary and spoken grammar rules. Vocabulary did not appear to be an insurmountable barrier for students speaking English. As shown in the observation grid above, their performances averaged 3.3.

Similarly, during the listening-based stage, students learned a lot about discourse management. To put it another way, they learned how to produce an extended English spoken language with as few gaps as possible, which they learned how to fill with pause fillers and vague language and how to connect with speech connectors to achieve speech coherence. They discovered how crucial it is to use chunks rather than construct clauses that may sound inappropriate or strange, such as phrasal verbs, collocations, idioms, and proverbs. They were also taught the importance of selecting the most appropriate speech act (e.g., how to describe, advise, argue, or express misunderstanding) and the different registers (e.g., formal, informal, and very informal speech) for each speaking situation. Besides, students learned how to subsidize their speaking with the paralinguistic tools including voice inflection, body gestures and facial expressions. This explains the 3.05 in the discourse management indicator.

Table 57

Comparison of Thirteenth Sessions Observation Grids (Stage 1 and 2)

Stage 1	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 13
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	1	1	1	1	1	05
S2	1	1	1	1	1	05
S3	3	2	2	2	2	11
S4	2	1	2	2	1	08
S5	1	1	1	0	1	04
S6	2	2	2	1	1	08
S7	3	3	3	2	2	13
S8	1	1	1	1	1	05
S9	1	1	1	2	1	06
S10	2	1	2	2	1	08
S11	1	0	1	1	0	03
S12	1	1	1	2	1	06
S13	3	2	2	2	2	11
S14	1	1	1	0	0	03
S15	2	1	1	2	1	07
S16	1	1	1	1	1	05
S17	1	1	1	1	1	05
S18	3	2	3	2	2	12
S19	1	1	1	1	1	05
S20	1	1	1	1	1	05
Total	32	25	29	27	22	135
Average	**1.6**	**1.25**	**1.45**	**1.35**	**1.1**	**6.75**

Stage 2	Students' Speaking Skill in the Listening-free Stage					Session 13
Indicators / Students	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication	Self-correction	Grade
S1	3	3	2	3	3	14
S2	3	3	2	2	2	12
S3	4	4	4	3	4	19
S4	3	3	3	3	3	15
S5	3	2	2	3	2	12
S6	4	4	3	3	4	18
S7	4	4	3	4	3	18
S8	3	2	2	2	2	11
S9	3	3	3	3	3	15
S10	4	3	3	3	4	17
S11	3	3	3	3	2	14
S12	3	3	3	3	3	15
S13	4	4	3	4	4	19
S14	2	2	2	2	2	10
S15	4	3	3	3	3	16
S16	3	3	3	3	3	15
S17	3	2	2	2	2	11
S18	4	4	3	4	4	19
S19	3	3	3	3	3	15
S20	3	3	2	3	2	13
Total	66	61	54	59	58	**298**
Average	**3.3**	**3.05**	**2.7**	**2.95**	**2.9**	**14.9**

Students received a 2.95 on the interactive communication scale. This is not surprising given that they have made significant progress in conversational principles such as how to initiate and respond quickly and appropriately, how to take and yield turns using both linguistic (English words and expressions) and paralinguistic tools (body language), in addition to the use of strategies to maintain or repair the interaction (as to ask for clarification or show misunderstanding of what has been said).

Furthermore, students have come a long way in self-correction since the first sessions of the listening-based stage. In this last session, the average of students' self-correction achievements was 2.9. The knowledge they gained in the various instructions helped them, gain maturity and self-confidence. This assisted many of them who were initially weak and/or very shy, in raising their self-esteem to the point where they became willing to regulate their knowledge and correct as many of their mistakes as possible by themselves, caring less about their knowledge gaps and what others would think if they fail correct themselves (S1, S2, S5, S8, S11, S14, S17 and S20).

Moreover, the students who were initially good became excellent with a spoken English language getting closer each session to the natural spoken English (S3, S7, S13 and S18). They showed an amazing ability to imitate the speakers' way of saying things, even the way they act and react in the different situations which helped them a lot in refining their speaking skill and attaining full autonomy.

6.1.3.12.1. Comparison of Listening-free and Listening-based Stages' Thirteenth Session

To use the word "change" alone to describe the difference in averages between the two thirteenth sessions of the listening-free and listening-based stages would be an understatement. Using "outstanding progress" will be more appropriate. The overall average increased from 6.75 to 14.9; more than doubling.

This drastic increase attained all the indicators of the observation grid as shown in the table above. This includes a shift from 1.6 to 3.3 in grammar and vocabulary; from 1.25 to 3.05 in discourse management; from 1.45 to 2.7 in pronunciation; from 1.35 to 2.95 in interactive communication; and from 1.1 to 2.9 in self-correction. Nobody scored below the average in the eighth session of the second stage, compared to sixteen in the first stage. While students' grades ranged from 03 to 13 in the first stage, they ranged from 10 to 19 in the second stage. In contrast to the first stage, there were no zero marks in the second.

Thanks to the listening instruction introduced, the shortcomings that previously characterised students' presentations appeared to have decreased significantly living way to more knowledgeable and confident students able to regulate their learning and more ready to cope with the difficulty of the English spoken language.

6.2. The Statistical Analysis of the Experimental Results

6.2.1. The Rational of the Paired t-Test

According to the nature and objectives of the present research, the Paired t-Test was used to examine the present hypothesis. The goal is to see if there is a significant difference in the means of the same group of students' scores before and after the treatment (listening-based instruction). This decision was made after it was confirmed that the conditions for using such test were met according to the norms for the use of this type of hypothesis testing (Wilkerson 2008; Ross and Willson, 2017). First, the sample is small (< 30) and was randomly selected from the whole second year population of the Department of English University of Batna. Second, the experiment investigates the difference between students' achievements before and after the introduction of the independent variable, not the relation. Third, the comparison encompasses no more than two paired units on a continuous outcome

that is normally distributed. Fourth, the outcome is in the form of a mean calculated from the grades earned by students at both stages; which is applicable to the quantitative type.

And, because the current study aims to investigate the likely impact of introducing a listening-based instruction (independent variable) on students' speaking skill across the entire thirteen sessions that comprise the listening-based stage, we assume that the variation in each individual's scores will be mostly due to the manipulation of this independent variable. In other words, the variation in scores was not random (the null hypothesis $\boldsymbol{H_0}$), but rather the result of the introduction of the listening instruction based on video extracts (The alternative hypothesis $\boldsymbol{H_1}$). Furthermore, the twenty students of the sample are initially randomly selected and, apart from the independent variable, they received the same treatment across both stages' thirteen sessions; this implies that any random variation between participants is considered to be outside the researchers' control and would be related to extraneous factors. This is known as *error* in empirical research which is measurable, among many other values and intervals, according to some special arithmetic calculations. The coming sections are widely dedicated to all the necessary calculations.

6.2.2. The Paired t-Test Formula

Among the wide variety of computation formulas used to calculate the paired t-Test, we have chosen the following one from Dragonfly Statistics (2013):

$$\boldsymbol{t} = \frac{\bar{d}}{S_d / \sqrt{n}} \quad = \quad \boldsymbol{t} = \frac{\bar{d}}{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{SE}}}$$

Given that:

t: Paired t-Test

$\bar{d}$: Mean of case-wise differences

S_d Standard deviation

n: Number of cases in a sample (Sample size)

$S_d / \sqrt{n}$ Standard Error (*SE)*

To calculate the paired t-Test formula above, it was necessary to calculate first the means of case-wise difference, the standard deviation and the Standard error.

6.2.2.1. Mean Differences Calculation

To calculate the mean of case-wise differences or simply the mean differences ($\bar{d}$), it is necessary to calculate the case-wise differences d_i (at the level of each individual student), the sum of case-wise differences $\sum d_i$, and the sum of squared case-wise differences $\sum d_i^2$ (given that *cases* in the present research refers to the twenty students of the sample). And given that student's scores in the listening-free and the listening-based stages are respectively dubbed ***W*** and ***Y*** in the present research; the case-wise differences are calculated by subtracting Y from W as follows:

$$d_i = (W-Y)$$

The calculation of the case-wise differences ($\boldsymbol{di}$), their sum ($\sum \boldsymbol{di}$) and the square of their sum ($\sum \boldsymbol{di}^2$) are demonstrated in Table 58below:

Table 58

Calculation of $\boldsymbol{di}$, $\sum \boldsymbol{di}$ *and* $\sum \boldsymbol{di}^2$

Students (Cases)	First Stage Grades W	Second Stage Grades Y	Case-Wise Differences *di*=(W-Y)
S1	5,75	10,16	**-4,41**
S2	3,91	8,5	**-4,59**
S3	11,25	16,16	**-4,91**
S4	9,41	13,66	**-4,25**
S5	5	9,16	**-4,16**
S6	8	13,58	**-5,58**
S7	12,66	16	**-3,34**
S8	3,33	9,16	**-5,83**
S9	5,58	11,75	**-6,17**
S10	6,33	12,75	**-6,42**
S11	4,5	10,25	**-5,75**
S12	6,58	11,5	**-4,92**
S13	10,91	16,41	**-5,5**
S14	2,16	7,83	**-5,67**
S15	6	13	**-7**
S16	6	14,08	**-8,08**
S17	3,66	8,25	**-4,59**
S18	12,5	15,75	**-3,25**
S19	6	11,33	**-5,33**

S20	5,5	9,58	**-4,08**
		$\sum di$	**103,83**
		$\sum di^2$	**566,1987**

The above calculations being done, the computation of the mean difference ($\bar{d}$) is feasible according to this formula:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum di}{n}$$

$$\bar{d} = \frac{-103.83}{20}$$

↳ $$\bar{d} = -5.1915$$

$$\bar{d}^2 = 26.9516$$

As shown above the mean differences$\bar{d}$is - **5.1915** and its squared value $\bar{d}^2$ is **26.9516.** We move now to the calculation of the standard deviation $S_d$as the second step.

6.2.2.2. Standard Deviation Calculation

According to Bhandari (2022a), the standard deviation, in general, represents the average amount of variability in the dataset. According to her, the sample standard deviation, as opposed to the whole population standard deviation, is used to make estimates or inferences about the population standard deviation. It shows how the data spreads out from the centre of the distribution on average (Bhandari, 2022a).

The computation formula of the sample standard deviation is as follows:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum di^2 - n\bar{d}^2}{n-1}}$$

Given that:

$\sum di^2 = 566.1987$ $(n\text{-}1) = 20\text{-}1 = 19$

$\bar{d}^2 = 26.9516$

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{566.1987 - 26.9516}{19}}$$

$$S_d = \sqrt{1.431}$$

$$S_d = 1.19$$

The sample standard deviation being calculated S_d (=1.19) we move to the computation of the standard error as the last step to be able to calculate the paired sample t-Test (t).

6.2.2.3. Standard Error Calculation

When explaining the significance of the standard error in statistics' analyses, Bhandari (2022b) assumed it to be the most commonly reported type of standard error which indicates how different the population mean is likely to be from a sample mean. In other words, it

specifies how much the sample mean would vary if the study were repeated with new samples drawn from the same population.

The standard error $\boldsymbol{SE}$ results from dividing the sample standard deviation $\boldsymbol{S_d}$ by the square root of the number of cases in the sample ($\boldsymbol{n}$) according to this formula:

$$\boldsymbol{SE} = \frac{\boldsymbol{S_d}}{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{n}}}$$

$$\boldsymbol{SE} = \frac{\mathbf{1.19}}{\sqrt{\mathbf{20}}} = \frac{1.19}{4.47}$$

$$\boldsymbol{SE} = 0.267$$

So, the Standard Error ***SE*** of the present research equals 0.26 which is statistically low. Now we can move to calculate the paired t-Test according to the formula presented earlier.

6.2.2.4. Paired t-Test Calculation

To apply the results of the previous calculations in the Paired t-Test formula, we divide the sample standard deviation by the square root of the standard error. We get:

$$\boldsymbol{t} = \frac{\bar{d}}{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{SE}}}$$

$$\boldsymbol{t} = \frac{-5.19}{\sqrt{\mathbf{0.267}}}$$

$$\Longrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{t} = -19.4$$

So, as shown in the computations above, the paired t-test value of the present research equals -19.4. We notice that this value is negative which means that the mean of the students' achievement in the listening-based stage is quite large than the mean of their achievements in the listening-free stage.

6.2.3. Analysis and Interpretation of the Calculations' Results

Before we proceed with the analysis of the results obtained from the previous calculations, we would like to restate the null and alternative hypotheses:

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$: $\mu 1 = \mu 2$ (the paired population means are equal).

$\boldsymbol{H_1}$: $\mu 1 \neq \mu 2$ (the paired population means are not equal).

Given that:

μ1 is the population mean of variable 1 (Before the introduction of the listening instruction).

μ2 is the population mean of variable 2 (After the introduction of the listening instruction).

To put it another way, the null hypothesis assumes that there will be no significant change in students' speaking skills (dependent variable) after the introduction of the listening-based instruction (independent variable). As a result, the mean of their accomplishments during the listening-free stage equals the mean of their accomplishments during the listening-based stage.

To check the validity of one or the other, we compare the value of the computed paired t-Test with the so-called critical t-value according to the related statistical rule. And given that the alternative hypothesis is non-directional (undirected), which means that it is not compared to a value which was pre-set by the researcher at the beginning of the experiment; this

comparison will be according to the critical t-values of the two tailed tests (rather than the one-tailed tests of the directed hypothesis).

So, the aim is to check if the computed t-value (paired t-Test value) is smaller or larger than the critical t-value of the two-tailed table (also called T-distribution Table or the Student t-Table). According to Wilkerson (2008), the values in this table were calculated by formulas developed by Gosset (dubbed Student). Hence, we aim to compare $\boldsymbol{t}$ to $\boldsymbol{t}_{\boldsymbol{crit}}$as follows:

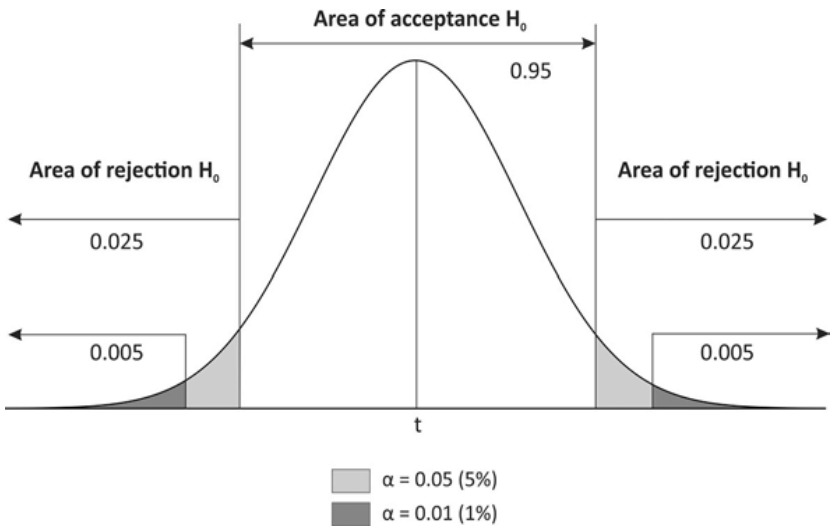
$\boldsymbol{t < t_{crit}}$ ⟹ we maintain the null hypothesis ($\boldsymbol{H_0}$)

$\boldsymbol{t > t_{crit}}$ ⟹ we reject the null hypothesis ($\boldsymbol{H_0}$) and adopt the ($\boldsymbol{H_1}$)

Moreover, testing a non-directional hypothesis theoretically implies splitting the significance level (∝) equally between the left and the right. Consider the following bell-shaped diagram:

Figure69

Two-Tailed Test at ∝ = *0.05*



And given that the present research confidence level, which represents the area under the curve is 95% (dubbed area of confidence in the diagram), this implements that the significance level$\propto = 0.05$; the degree of freedom $\boldsymbol{df} = 19$ which is the result of the number of cases minus one (*n-1)*; and since the result of subtracting half the significance level from one$(1-\frac{\propto}{2})$ i.e. $(1-\frac{0.05}{2})$ results in 0.975 or (97.5%); we intersect the value of the significance level $\propto = 0.05$ with the critical t-value 0.975 in the t-Table of Critical Values also called the t-Distribution Table. We specify that the Z-table was not used because the sample size is less than thirty (< 30). find:

$$\Longrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{t_{crit} = 2.093}$$

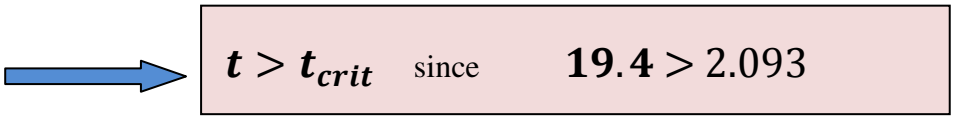
Table 59

T-Distribution table of Critical Values

	P						
one-tail	0.1	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	0.001	0.0005
two-tails	0.2	0.1	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.002	0.001
DF							
1	3.078	6.314	2.706	31.821	63.656	318.289	636.578
2	1.886	2.92	4.303	6.965	9.925	22.328	31.6
16	1.337	1.746	2.12	2.583	2.921	3.686	4.015
17	1.333	1.74	2.11	2.567	2.898	3.646	3.965
18	1.33	1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878	3.61	3.922
19			2.093	2.539	2.861	3.579	3.883
20	1.325	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845	3.552	3.85

Note. This is an example of the Standard T-Distribution of critical values.

Comparing the critical t-value t_{crit} with the absolute value computed paired t-Test above (positive) we find:



The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternative (H_1) is adopted.

In other words, evidence is that the listening-based instruction (independent variable) had an impact on the samples' speaking skills (dependent variable).

6.2.4. Matching the Computation Results with the Computer Statistics Program (SPSS)

The SPSS, which stands for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, is the most widely used statistical package because it can perform high-level data calculations and analysis while saving time and effort through simple instructions. When we run the paired sample t-Test in the SPSS program we reached the following results:

Table 60

Paired Sample Means' Difference

		Mean	N	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Pair 1	LF	6,7515	20	3,06518	,68540
	LB	11,9430	20	2,81715	,62993

Note. The table demonstrates the difference in the sample' means. It is realized by SPSS program. The highlighted number represents the means in the LF and LB stages.

Table 61

Paired Samples Correlation

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	LF & LB	20	,921	,000

Note. This table is realized by SPSS program. The highlighted number represents the paired sample correlation

The most significant information we can extract from the Table 60 is that the difference in means between Listening-free stage (LF) and the listening-based stage (LB) is statistically significant in the favour of the second one (LB> LF).

The comparison of the correlation between students' speaking skill in LF and LB applies to the following categories:

Less than 0.3 ⟶ Weak correlation.

0.5 – 0.7 ⟶ Medium correlation.

0.7 – 0.9 ⟶ Strong Correlation.

0.9 – 1 ⟶ Very strong correlation.

Accordingly, the value of the correlation between the listening-free and listening-based results of the sample in the present research is 0.921, as shown in the Paired Samples Correlation table above, falls in the last category which means that the present correlation is very strong. Differently put, if a student scored relatively high in the first stage (LF) he scored high in the second stage (LB)

In a paired t-Test, the larger the correlation is the lesser the standard error *(SE)* will be in further tests. This means that the probability of getting the same results when subjecting the same sample (or another from the whole population) to the same treatment is true.

Moreover, the table shows that the significance value is very low, less than 0.001, which means that there are statistically significant differences before and after the treatment (the listening-based instruction). These results imply the rejection of the null hypothesis (H_0).

Table 62

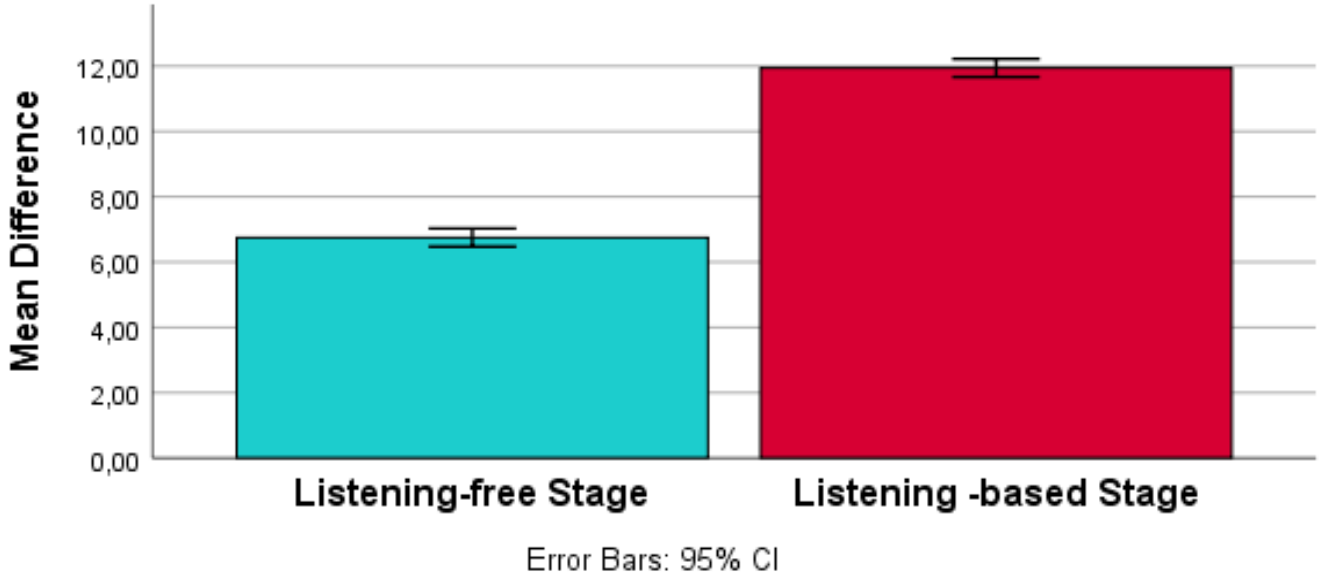
Paired Sample Global Results

		Paired differences					t	Ddl	Sig. (Two-tailed)
		Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean	95% confidence interval of the difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	LF – LB	-5,19150	1,19572	,26737	-5,75111	-4,63189	-19,417	19	,000

Note. This table is realized by SPSS program. The highlighted number represents the paired t-Test value. Additional significant statistical results are displayed, including the Mean Difference, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error Mean.

Figure 70

Mean Difference of the Listening-free and the Listening-based Stages (by SPSS)



Note. This figure is realized by SPSS program. It illustrates the mean difference between the listening-free (to the left) and listening-based (to the right) stages.

According to the results displayed in Table 62, and given that the difference confidence interval is 95%, we notice that the two-tailed significance value is also very low and very inferior to the significance level$\propto = 0.05$. This implies that the mean difference between students' scores of the first and second stages is statistically significant.

Consequently, the alternative hypothesis is retained meaning that students' achievements in terms of their English-speaking skill after the introduction of the listening-based instruction are quite different and higher than their achievements before.

This also means that the introduction of the meant listening-based instruction in the oral-expression course proved to have a significant positive impact over students' English language speaking skills.

Moreover, all the calculation results held previously including the mean difference $\bar{d}$ standard variation S_d the standard error SE and the paired sample t-Test t match with the SPSS findings.

Conclusion

The current chapter was devoted entirely to the analysis of data resulting from the observation of students' achievements in the first and second stages of the experimentation, as well as the statistical computations of some arithmetic values required for the interpretation of the various gathered data. The calculation of the paired sample t-Test (t), made later more evident in comparison with the SPSS calculations, revealed that the results are statistically significant since the null hypothesis H_0 was rejected and the alternative retained. The correlation between variables is very high, and the validity for previous applications of the same study on similar population samples was proved.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

GENERAL CONCLUSION

As part of action research, which entails teachers' involvement by themselves and in their own contexts to translate their own experiences into useful theories, the current study is an attempt to investigate how oral expression instruction is carried out in our oral-expression classrooms, as well as how teachers and their students approach listening and speaking issues. The goal is to build on previous research findings (mainly those of Thornbury (2008), Wilson (2012), Vandergrift & Goh (2012) and Davies and Pearse, (2009)) and conduct the present experiment on second-year students in order to achieve significant results that can contribute to the improvement of the oral expression instruction and students' English-speaking performances; in a few words, to correlate research with the art of teaching.

In this respect, and drawing on the foremost studies' that denied the possibility of approaching speaking the foreign language without referring to its listening, this research was conducted to investigate the potential influence of introducing a listening-based instruction in the oral-expression course (dependent variable) on students' speaking skill regarding effectiveness and autonomy (the independent variable).

This instruction is based on the use of carefully chosen short video excerpts and a set of related activities spread across the three phases of each oral-expression session, including the pre-listening, listening, and speaking phases, with the latter receiving the largest share. Another goal is to provide a practical framework for teaching oral expression and to assist teachers in providing adequate assistance to their students.

By and large, the current study essentially comprises two main divisions. The first division, dubbed the theoretical part, is primarily concerned with the presentation of the related literature through the three first chapters: Teaching Listening, Teaching Speaking, and Integrating Listening with Speaking and Using Authentic Videos in EFL Classrooms.

The second part, dubbed the experimental, went over the procedure and the analysis of the present experiment. It includes three other chapters ranged from the fourth to the sixth: Research Design and Methodology; Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires' Analysis, and Analysis and Interpretation of Data.

The fourth chapter is devoted to stating and justifying the various decisions made regarding the experiment design and the use of the adopted methodology. The chapter begins with a brief recapitulation of the research objectives and the various steps involved in carrying out this investigation before narrowing the approach and methodology. This latter covered the statement of the research dependent variable which stands for the development of students' English-speaking skills in terms of effectiveness and autonomy, as well as the independent variable, which stands for the accentuation of a listening-based instruction based on selected on-purpose short video excerpts.

This section also introduced the research population as the entire second-year students in the department of English at the University of Batna2; as well as information about how the samples were framed. This is a reference to the questionnaire samples of both teachers and students, which were chosen using the simple random sampling method encompassing eight teachers and 250 students, respectively. Second, information was provided regarding the selection of the group of students who were subjected to the current experiment. Twenty students were chosen at random to represent the paired sample of the pre-experimental and experimental stages.

This section also involved details on how the experiment was carried out, such as the time span (four months), the topics covered, the number of sessions (13 in each stage), and the duration of each (one hour and a half). Later, the steps taken to ensure the research's validity and reliability were thoroughly explained and justified.

Furthermore, the section dubbed Experiment Implementation covered the statement and explanation of how the tools used for data collection were chosen and implemented. The tools of data collection in question are: questionnaires and classroom observation. The first consisted of two sorts: the teachers' and the students' questionnaires and primarily targeted the EFL listening-speaking issue and the oral-expression course in general. The second was based on an observation grid divided into five indicators according to which students' achievements were evaluated and scored. These include Spoken grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation of single words and whole sentences, interactive communication and self-correction.

As well, a detailed description of the criteria used to select the materials, specifically the short video extracts, was provided, including availability, accessibility, and practicality. Following that, an exhaustive portrayal of the listening-free and listening-based sessions was provided, including the three-phase division (pre-listening, listening, and speaking phases), objectives, topics, and activities for each session.

The fourth chapter concludes with a description of the data analysis procedures used (paired t-test and SPSS), followed by a discussion of the current study's limitations. In terms of listening, the constraints were generally related to the implicit aspect of the listening skill, which is primarily related to the development of critical thinking, making it difficult to be observed, apprehended, or measured. To a lesser extent but no less significant, the speaking constraints, are primarily psychological, namely shyness and low self-confidence, and highly prevent students from practising freely their English language speaking. Sessions were interrupted due to occasional power outages, as well as some political and sanitary events that occurred during the period when the current research was conducted.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The fifth chapter's main focus was the analysis of teachers' and students' questionnaires. Items were handled on a case-by-case basis, including the formulation of the question, the presentation of its results in illustrative bar diagrams created with the Excel operator, in addition to the analysis of the resulting data.

The last chapter of this research was devoted to the quantitative and qualitative analysis and interpretation of all the statistical data. First, it presented the observation data of the pre-listening stage's thirteen sessions including a summary of the procedure in addition to the students' reactions to the meant instruction mainly in what relates to the pedagogical means (video extract) and the selected activities. An observation grid was provided for each session, followed by a detailed description and analysis of the students' results in terms of the five observational indicators mentioned above. The second stage data were treated similarly, but with a detailed description of each session's three phases and related activities. A comparison between each session of the listening-free stage and its opposite in the listening-based stage was provided based on the analysis of the students' EFL speaking scores and their reactions to the targeted instruction in general.

Furthermore, the statistical analysis of the observation data collected from both phases of the present investigation was intended for the sixth chapter's final section. It was concerned with the application of the different necessary rules for the sample paired t-Test calculation starting by the final score of each student's achievements in the first stage (W) and the second stage (Y) then the mean difference, the standard deviation and the standard error. The statistical significance of the findings was established by comparing the resulting t-value to the critical value of the t-distribution table, with the first being significantly greater than the second. This implies the rejection of the null hypothesisH_0, which hypothesises that any difference in students' results before and after the introduction of the listening-based

instruction happened by chance. In other words, the alternative hypothesis H_1 was retained meaning that accentuating the listening-based instruction using well selected short video excerpts positively influenced the students' speaking skills in terms of effectiveness and autonomy.

All the above calculations were confirmed by the outcome of the results' treatment using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (SPSS). Moreover, the correlation between students' scores in both stages was statistically proven very significant which implies that if a student scored relatively high in the first stage (LF), they are more likely to score high in the second stage (LB). Moreover, the comparison between the computed value of the sample paired t-Test ($t = 19.4$) and the standard error ($SE = 0.26$) demonstrated the validity of the probability that the same outcomes will be obtained when the same sample (or another from the entire population) is subjected to the same treatment.

By and large, the efficacy of emphasizing teaching some listening over students' English-speaking skill was proven evident in the oral-expression course. The goal is not to overburden the class with boring listening lessons to the point where the course deviates from its main goal of providing students with opportunities to practice their EFL speaking.

Additionally, given that the purpose of these courses—as well as probably all other EFL courses with a similar or lesser emphasis—is to promote the English-speaking ability, students should be supported in a way to get better each session. This means that allowing students to act without any or very little guidance in a speaking classroom cannot be promising. Conversely, this might cause the more or less skilled ones to take the reins of the classroom and start 'leading the dance' according to their level and preferences, leaving the weaker ones to seek refuge in their shaded zones and silence. Some students might be overly

shy or lacking self-confidence and self-esteem, while others may find it frustrating and risky to have to participate in any discussions or present a work in front of others.

However, providing a safer environment that supports all students and gives them equal opportunities to develop their competencies is rather encouraging. This stands for the kind of instruction which enables the students to get aware of the listening processes and the metacognitive strategies they already use, or learn to use through the listening instruction, to develop their listening skill and acquire knowledge that will assist them to hone their speaking skill without being constantly exposed to risky and embarrassing situations. Yet, the focus is still on the productive side of the English language since as Harmer (2007) underlined it "the more students speak the foreign language, the more proficient and autonomous they will be" (p. 123).

Moreover, the oral expression course needs reconsideration and a serious restructuring to make it more effective and more credible. Teachers must reconsider the distribution of roles in their OE classrooms. A reduction without exclusions of their roles and an extension without exaggeration of students' are undoubtedly more beneficial for the development of the latter's listening and speaking skills. Heavy corrections of spoken abnormalities should be kept to a minimum of some rectifications only when the intelligibility of what is being said is susceptible. In layman's terms, the goal is to emphasize fluency over accuracy in order to maintain the flow of speech and alleviate the affective burden that often plagues students who struggle to speak English.

Furthermore, any reconsideration of the OE courses implies; without doubt, a re-examination of the activities and materials used to support them. The first must be varied and cautiously, selected to fit the course objectives and the students' levels. The students must be kept busy along the session to avoid them getting bored and ward off any attempt to

disconnect from the course. The suggested three-phase model can offset the tedious aspect of these lessons and balance the need for listening and speaking. The second, or videos in the case of the current study, must be attractive and carefully chosen to correlate with the activities, the students' level of proficiency, and the general and specific objectives defined previously. However, the course should in no case turn into a simple cinema session.

The bottom line, the undertaken research was a pleasant experience from which the researcher learned a lot of things and put all her knowledge and ambition to reach the present conclusions that we hope will be efficient and helpful for further action research. Hence, the coming recommendations are made based on the researcher's experience and the findings of the current study.

First, it is important to establish a welcoming environment where everyone—including the teacher—is expected to behave responsively and professionally away from hostility.

Second, it is more effective to prioritise group or pair work whenever possible over individual work, at least during the first sessions, which are meant to strengthen the bonds between the students and enable the least-skilled to rely on the more-skilled. This is meant to support those students in gradually expanding their knowledge and improving their speaking abilities, even implicitly. This clearly calls for the teacher to group students into pairs or groups where there is at least one good student; a step which presupposes the teacher to be familiar with the students.

Third, as mentioned previously, the choice of the activities must be subtle and in line with the majority of students' speaking abilities and preferences. The level of difficulty could either dissuade or promote students to participate in the activity.

Fourth, instead of consistently engaging in the same activity or a boring one, it is preferable to use a variety of intensely competitive activities. This is supposed to be more appealing and broadly effective.

Fifth, in order to avoid instances of pointless chattering, it is critical to keep the students engaged and busy throughout the lesson. We are not referring to the constructive chattering that students often engage in when debating a subject or organising an activity. This is rather supported in interactive settings like oral-expression classrooms.

Sixth, involving students in the decision-making process by allowing them to choose the topics and/or video excerpts is a great way to involve them in the teaching-learning process and increase their sense of responsibility and seriousness.

Seventh, it is necessary to avoid using lengthy video extracts which could turn the oral-expression classroom into a cinema where the only objective is to enjoy the watching activity. The video excerpt's content related to the watching phase must align with the chosen activities and the objectives of the course.

Eighth, the three instruction's phases must be in harmony with the session's outlined goals, presenting the data gradually. The speaking phase must be the longest and the pre-listening phase the shortest.

Ninth, providing handouts with useful information, to be used during the listening and speaking phases, encourages students to take risks and participate despite the possibility of making mistakes. The idea is that the knowledge and language presented in the handouts will provide them with consistent support, so they will no longer make many gaps while speaking and will not have to rely heavily on the teacher and peers for assistance.

Tenth, the video extract's content opens a large parenthesis over the socio-cultural side of the English people; language is only a small part. This includes how people speak, behave, dress and interact on a daily basis. In terms of language, this is intended to provide students with vocabulary that they may not find in school books, and which can help them understand and, more importantly, speak closer English to that of the natives.

Last but not least, we would like to draw attention to the eminent need for well-equipped laboratories if any listening or speaking is to bring up. The students need to be provided with genuine, not *fallacious*, support to undergo their EFL learning and keep up with the challenging aspect of this language.

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APPENDICES

I. General Handout (a)

Primarily based on the work of Scott Thornbury (2013), this document contains useful information that students should be aware of to facilitate the easy going of the course and ensure that they are prepared to face the planned objectives.

1. Generalities

- Speaking in general has two functions:

a. Transactional Function: We speak to convey information and facilitate the exchange of goods and services. **e.g.,** phoning to book a table at a restaurant.
b. Interpersonal Function: To establish and maintain social relations.
e.g., the conversation between friends that takes place in a restaurant.

- Speaking can be interactive or non-interactive.

a. Interactive: like a multi-party speech in a casual conversation between friends or a shopping exchange.
b. Non-interactive: As a monologue in a university lecture or a live report of a television journalist.

- Speaking can be planned or spontaneous.

a. Planned: examples of this type may be public speeches and business presentations. In this case the linguistic feature largely replicates features of written language.
b. Unplanned: a phone conversation to ask for train timetable information or to book a table at a restaurant are examples of this type. The speaker here has to make strategic and spontaneous decisions according to the way the discourse unfolds.

2. What EFL Speakers Need to Develop

*** Sociocultural knowledge**

In a way to develop the intercultural competence, you should not only learn about the culturally embedded rules of a specific English region, but rather learn how to be opened to the foreign culture on the basis that difference and ambiguity are inherent in all communication including your own local one.

*** Speech Acts**

Also called functions, these are verbal actions that accomplish something. It is imperative to learn the way English speakers greet each other, insult, compliment, plead, supply information, and get work done. This includes implies knowledge about the language used in terms of words, phrases, chunks, etc (linguistic knowledge) and how people use their bodies to express the intended meaning (extra-linguistic knowledge).

General Handout (b)

*** Register**

A register, in linguistics, is the way people use words and phrases to address different people in different situations. This determines why, for example, you may tend to choose more polite words when addressing a stranger or speak in a strict formal manner to reflect respect for your boss. Familiarity with the interlocutor and the social status of the speakers determine the type of language to be used. Here is an example of various ways of greeting according to different registers (from Wikipedia register (linguistics), 2019):

Register	Phrase
Very informal	"Ey!" *or* "Yo!" *or* "Wassup!"
Informal	"Hey!" *or* "Hi!"
Formal	"Hello! »
Very formal	"Good morning/afternoon/evening!"

*** Discourse**

This involves using grammar and vocabulary to connect speaking turns and to signal speaker intentions. You obviously know that speaking is collaboratively constructed through the taking and yielding of turns since you practice this every day in your local dialect. However, what you need to develop is knowledge of how English speakers manage the turn moves to build a conversation. A good step for this may be learning some English discourse markers.

*** Grammar**

The most important thing to bear in mind when we talk about grammar is the importance to make a distinction between spoken and written grammar. Spontaneous speech is rather produced in clause length units than sentence length ones.

e.g., *Tea?* (Spoken grammar) instead of Do *you want a cup of tea?* (Written grammar).

Other features are to be held in the coming lessons.

General Handout (c)

*** Vocabulary**

According to recent studies, knowing the 200 most common English words empowers students to conduct any conversation in English. However, to quickly reach fluency and give the impression to speak like a native, you will need more than learning isolated English words. This is because, native speakers of English use prefabricated sequences of speech, called chunks, which have been pre-assembled through repeated use to become established as single units. Chunks are also known as lexical phrases, holophrases, formulaic language, and prefabs. These include collocations (e.g., rich and famous); phrasal verbs (e.g., get up, run out of); idioms, catchphrases and sayings (e.g., as cool as a cucumber, speak of the devil); sentence frames (e.g., would you like a ...); social formulas (see you later, have a nice day); and discourse markers (e.g., by the way, to cut a long story short).

Another feature of spoken vocabulary is the use of vague words (sort, thing...).

*** Phonology**

The first thing we think we must consider when we refer to phonology is probably pronunciation. But since the words are supposed to be stored along with their appropriate pronunciation, you generally do not need to reconstitute them from scratch each time you want to use them.

Another important aspect of phonology but which needs to be seriously considered is intonation. It "serves both to separate the stream of speech into blocks of information (called tone units) and to make information within these units as being significant" (Thornbury, 2013, p. 24). Within a tone unit, all the information that we add to the speech should be highlighted with a step up in pitch. Any raise in pitch by the end of a tone unit indicates some kind of continuation; any fall in pitch automatically signifies completion.

Paratone, is another important feature of phonology which is marked by a raise in pitch on the first word of a new utterance indicating a new idea separating it from the preceding and surrounding discourse (somehow equivalent to starting a new paragraph in writing).

General Handout (d)

Another phenomenon which marks spoken grammar is Ellipsis which is the omission of one or more words on the basis of the assumption that the meaning can be understood without them. The aim is mainly to avoid redundancy and makes the speaker sound just like a native. Here are some examples from https://www.englishreservoir.com/ellipsis/

- Ellipsis at the Beginning:

This is the most common form. The omitted words generally include articles (the, a, an); possessives (my, his…); personal pronouns (I, you, he…); auxiliary verbs (have, be, do).

e.g. can't send the fax = **It** (the printer) can't send the fax.

Cautious over the issue we talked about = **Be** cautious over the issue we talked about..

Son's at the office = **my** son is at the office.

- Ellipsis with Auxiliary Verbs

e.g. She told me she'd come and she **did**. = She told me she'd come, and she did come. ('d = would, contracted form).

He told me he would leave, but he **hasn't**. = He told me he would leave, but he hasn't left.

- Ellipsis with Infinitives

e.g. Is Jill coming today? She doesn't want **to**. = She doesn't want to come today.

Can you help me? I'm not able **to** right now. = I'm not able to help you right now.

- Ellipsis in Noun Phrases (when the meaning is clear)

e.g. Would you like some? = Would you like some chips (or whatever is being offered).

We're staying at the Hilton. = We're staying at the Hilton hotel.

- Ellipsis with Conjunctions "But, And, Or"

e.g., Your plate **and** his plate are ready. = Your plate is ready and his plate is ready. (Do you see the redundancy? That's why ellipsis is so important).

A mouse **and** keypad. = A mouse and **a** keypad.

General Handout (e)

He can read, **but** can't write. = he can read, but <u>he</u> can't write.

These friends **and** colleagues of yours. = These friends and <u>those</u> colleagues of yours.

<u>Elision</u> (https://www.ifioque.com/figures-of-speech/trope/elision)

Refers to the removal or omission of one or more sounds in words. It is a deliberate act where one or more (the smallest sound unit e.g., *'d', 't'*, in the words *'bid', 'bit'*) are omitted, mainly for the purpose of enhancing easier and fluent pronunciations.

For instance, we know that the word **round** is pronounced /**raʊnd**/ and the word **to** is pronounced /**tə**/. However, when the words are used together as in **round to**, we often drop the final /**d**/, so that phonetically it reads /**raʊn tə**/. This is because /t/ and /**d**/ are both labio-dental sounds, and we tend to drop one – in this case the voiced /**d**/. This is called *elision*.

In the English language, stress placement in sentences and rhythm are part and parcel of everyday speech. As a result, stress placement is variable depending upon the meaning and the effect sought. This is quite a large area of phonetics, so for now we will simply identify some regular features of stress placement in connected utterances. Some words regularly attract the stress, while others don't.

Additional information about Vocabulary:

The knowledge of the high-frequency English words would stand the students in 'good stead' (Thornbury, 2013, pp. 34-6). These include: all the common question forming words (e.g., what, where, when …), all the pronouns; all the modal auxiliary verbs (e.g., would, will, can, might …); demonstrative pronouns and common deictic devices (e.g. this, here, then, now…); all the common prepositions (e.g. on, near, from, between…); all spoken discourse markers (e.g. well, oh, right, so, now …); common backchannel expressions (e.g. really, how, what, how awful! How wonderful!); common sequencing and linking words (e.g. first, then, next, and, or …); common ways of adding emphasis (e.g. really, very, just, so …); common ways of hedging (as in reducing assertiveness through the use of actually, quite, rather, sort (of), etc); the use of all-purpose words (e.g. thing, things, place, time, way, make and do); in addition to the chunks associated with those high-frequency words.

Collocations in English

COME	GET	DO
come to a compromise	**get** a call	**do** good
come to life	**get** a joke	**do** the exam
come second	**get** a ticket	**do** anything
come to decision	**get** a letter	**do** a good job
come to a total of	**get** a cold	**do** your chores
come to an end	**get** a shock	**do** everything
come to an agreement	**get** a dark	**do** sport
come direct	**get** a clue	**do** well
come cheap	**get** a tan	**do** the ironing
come to a stop	**get** a job	**do** the cleaning
come into sth.	**get** out of breath	**do** badly
come clean about	**get** drunk	**do** business
come under attack	**get** started	**do** exercises

TAKE	HAVE	GO
take a chance	**have** a wash	**go** cinema
take a picture	**have** a scrub	**go** bank
take a seat	**have** a rest	**go** a hike
take notes	**have** a break	**go** a drink
take care	**have** a nap	**go** a coffee
take a break	**have** a snooze	**go** a meal
take class	**have** a lie down	**go** a rest
take a rest	**have** a dream	**go** a nap
take a taxi	**have** a holiday	**go** a ride
take an exam	**have** a day off	**go** a drive
take care of	**have** a party	**go** a swim
take your time	**have** fun	**go** a walk

Commonly Used English Idioms

A Plum Job	An easy and pleasant job that also pays well
An Apple a Day Keeps the Doctor Away	Eating healthy foods will keep one from getting sick (and needing to see a doctor)
Apple of Someone's Eye	The person that someone loves most of all and is very proud of
Bad Apple	A discontented, troublemaking, or dishonest person
Big Cheese	An important person in a company or organization
Born on the Wrong Side of The Blanket	Born to parents who were not married
Break the Ice	To get something started, particularly by means of a social introduction or conversation
Burn the Midnight Oil	To work late into the night
Change One's Tune	To alter one's opinion about something
Chase Rainbows	To pursue unrealistic goals
Cook Up a Storm	Cook a great deal of food
Couch Potato	A lazy person who watches a great deal of television
Don't Judge a Book by Its	Don't be deceived by looks; don't rely on looks when

ListenThink & Speak

Collocations in English

English Study Here

GIVE

- give a call
- give a chance
- give a damn
- give a hand
- give a choice
- give a headache
- give a hug
- give a kiss
- give a ring
- give a description
- give a lift
- give a lecture
- give a speech
- give a performance
- give a ride
- give an advice
- give an answer
- give an example
- give an idea
- give a buzz
- give a guess
- give a trip
- give an opinion
- give birth
- give credit
- give evidence
- give notice
- give permission

KEEP

- keep a secret
- keep a promise
- keep a diary
- keep a journal
- keep the change
- keep score
- keep your balance
- keep s.one in check
- keep safe
- keep away
- keep pace
- keep calm
- keep sth on the down low
- keep calm
- keep control
- keep the quite
- keep records
- keep animals
- keep in touch
- keep track of
- keep tabs on
- keep in mind
- keep sth to yourself
- keep it up
- keep it down
- keep up
- keep your job

Listen Analyse

and

Verbalize

II. Handout 1

1. Speech Acts

Here are some types of speech acts from Schiffman's online handout 'Speech Acts and Conversation':

- Representatives: assertions, statements, claims, hypotheses, descriptions, suggestions.
- Commissives: promises, oaths, pledges, threats, vows.
- Directives: commands, requests, challenges, invitations, orders, summons, entreaties, dares.
- Declarations: blessings, firings, baptisms, arrests, marrying, juridical speech acts such as sentencings, declaring a mistrial, etc.
- Expressives: Speech acts that make assessments of psychological states or attitudes: greetings, apologies, congratulations, condolences, thanksgivings...
- Verdictives: rankings, assessments, appraising, condoning (combinations such as representational declarations: You're out!

2. An Example of Speech Acts

Adapted from Thornbury (2013, pp. 32-3), here is a table representing possible forms for offering advice or suggestion in writing and speaking (formal and informal).

	Spoken Form (Informal)	
Written Form (formal)	**very common**	**Less common**
- Why do you not ....? - I have some advice... - My suggestion to you would be.... - If you want my suggestion, ...	- I'd ... if I were you. - You would better ... - If you want my advice, you ... - You ought to ... - Why don't you	- I advise you to ... - My advice to you would be ... - What I suggest is .... - I have a suggestion...

Lesson One Activities

Pre-listening Activity:

1. On the light of the information presented in the handout and the teacher's explanation, advice your friends to do something first in a formal than in an informal way (see the table in the Handout1).

Listening Activities (LA)

Listening comprehension

1. Here is a short conversation between two friends Barry and Al from Thornbury (2013, p. 51-2). Listen carefully to the teacher's reading of the conversation and then in pairs divide it into parts according to the following speech acts: a compliment, a suggestion, a request, greeting, an invitation, an acceptance, a response to the compliment, an apology + refusal + excuse, a promise.

> **Al:** Hey, Barry, What a great tie!
> **Barry:** Thanks. Actually, I've had it for ages, but I never wear it.
> **AL:** It suits you. Listen, Barry, I was thinking, do you fancy lunch together sometime this week?
> **Barry:** That'd be nice. What about Friday?
> **Al:** Perfect. Do you mind if I ask Jackie?
> **Barry:** Well, actually, I'm sorry Al, I'd rather you didn't. It's just that Jackie doesn't know I'm back, and...
> **Al:** OK. I understand. I won't tell her, I promise.

2. Watch the extract carefully. Answer the following comprehension questions:
   a. Where do you think the conversation is taking place?
   b. How many active characters are there in this short extract? Provide a description for each character.
   c. What is the problem between the two men-characters?
   d. What was the thief's first reaction? Do you think he was convincing?

3. **Awareness-raising Activity**
   a. What did William (the shop owner) say to express his intention to advice the thief shopper?
   b. Did he use words such as 'advice' or 'to advise' to convey his message?
   c. Reproduce William's expression.

Speaking Activities

4. **Appropriation Activity:**
   a. Using knowledge you acquired in the warm-up section of the lesson, and working in pairs;
      - Propose an alternative to William's advice for Rufus (the thief).
   b. Do you think these types of statements would be adequate for a written text? Justify.
   c. How would you express William's advice in a formal piece of writing?

5. **Automaticity Activities:**
   In groups of three students, construct a dialogue between William and Rufus but this time:
   - Rufus do not assume his guilt and tries to run. William wants to call the police when Anna takes part in the conversation. She pities Rufus and tries to defend him by paying for the book or by persuading William to let him go.
   - Anna and Rufus are accomplices in the robbery, and they try to deceive William, who discovers the plot and teaches them a lesson they will never forget.

NB this icon appears where the extract or parts of it are played.

III. Handout 2

1. **Functions of the word Sorry in the English language and culture**

English people are stereotyped for the overuse of the word "sorry" in everyday communication. They say sorry even when they are not at fault! Linda Geddes (2016) drew on a recent survey of over 1,000 Brits to find that, on average, one person says 'sorry' about eight times a day - and one in eight apologizes until 'to 20 times a day. In most of the times 'sorry' is used for other functions than apology.

In the British culture, sorry is generally used to:

- Apologies;
- Express astonishment;
- Say 'No';
- Attract the attention/start a conversation.
- Ask for repetition or show misunderstanding.

When 'sorry' is used alone, the right intonation plays an important role in defining what exactly lies behind its use.

For example: Sorry! (= I'm sure you're kidding me.) Sorry? (= What did you mean?)

2. **Alternatives for 'Sorry' in Daily Conversation**

Since it is used several times a day, and to avoid repeating themselves, English people use some alternatives for the word sorry in daily conversation to express apology.

*See English with Lucy on YouTube: "Avoid repeating these words in Daily English Conversation. Use These Alternative Words" on https://youtu.be/orVRtBKVDOI).

The followings are good alternatives:

-I didn't mean it/to ... -It was wrong of me to .... -It was wrong to ...

I should never have to ... - My bad! (Mainly used by Americans)

Lesson Two Activities

Pre-listening Activity

1. On the light of the teacher's explanation of the use of the word sorry in the English language and culture, give examples of the different related speech acts. Pay attention to your intonation when you pronounce 'sorry' in each case.

Listening Activities (LA)

1. **Awareness-raising Activity**
   Watch the three extracts carefully. Relate each of the following expressions to the adequate extract.
   I'm sorry about that.
   Look I'm sorry if I've been …but I don't think you're an idiot at all
   Ladies and gentlemen, I'm sorry to drag you from your delicious desserts.

   a. Notice how the word sorry is used in each extract and define its function according to the beforehand studied speech acts.
   b. In the extract of Notting Hill (Can I Have Your Autograph?), how did Rufus address Anna Scott?
   - Did he use the expression 'excuse me' for another reason than apology? If yes, what was this reason?

   c. Listen again to the extract from "Four Weddings and a Funeral).
   Try to reconstruct the following passage with your classmate, and then act out Charles' speech to each other. Pay attention to intonation.

"Ladies and gentlemen, I'm sorry to drag you from your delicious desserts there are just one or two little … I feel I should say-- as best man this is the second time I've …… been a best man I hope I did the job alright that time -- couple in question are …….. still talking to me unfortunately they're not talking to each other that the divorce came through a couple of months ago, but I'm sure it had …… nothing to do with me."

Speaking Activities

2. **Appropriation Activity:**
   Imagine you work at the market stall. Your classmate is a habitual customer. Build a conversation with your classmate of three turns each, using the word 'sorry' as much time as you can.
   The group that manages to introduce more "sorry's!" is the winner.

3. **Automaticity Activities: (Chain Dialogue)**
   Divided in two rows, you (the students) take turns to construct a dialogue, each one taking over from, and building on, the contribution of the precedent classmate, at a given signal from the teacher. The first student from group A (first row) starts the dialogue, and the first student from group B (second row) answers his/her protagonist from the other group. The dialogue continues until all members of both groups have participated. You try to collect points by introducing the word 'sorry' as much as possible according to the following table:

Apology	1
Astonishment	2
To say No	3
Attract the attention/ start a conversation	4
Ask for repetition or show misunderstanding	2

The situation: you want to buy a cinema ticket to watch your favorite film (the silence of the lambs). You arrive late and the box office is already closed. You go to the security guard seeking for help.

NB this icon appears where the extract or parts of it are played.

IV. Handout 3

The most natural native way to express misunderstanding of the spoken message (utterance) is to say **Sorry?** Here is a list of twenty-two alternative expressions to 'can you repeat? Or I don't understand' that can be used in British English in formal or informal situations. Retrieved from English with Lucy **https://youtu.be/ASyBOOq5yKc**

- Sorry?
- Excuse me?
- Pardon? (a posh word).
- I beg your pardon? (Posher).
- What was that, sorry?
- I don't understand. Could you say that again please?
- Sorry, what did you just say?
- What did you say just then?
- Sorry, I didn't quite catch that?
- Sorry, I didn't quite catch that?
- Would you mind speak up a bit?
- Sorry I'm not following what you are saying.
- Wait a second, I am a bit lost.
- Would you mind slowing down a bit? I'm struggling to follow.
- I'm not sure I understand what you mean by ...
- I'm sorry to interrupt, but would you mind repeating...
- I'm sorry to butt in ... (with friends)
- This is all Greek to me (idiom).
- That was as clear as mud (with friends).
- That went right over my head.
- What are you on about (talking excessively with friends).

Here are some alternatives for the words "YES, No, THANK YOU, OKAY" which make you sound like a native speaker.

Yes
* yep (spoken English – informal- casual conversation – yap in American).
* Yeah (spoken English – casual conversation).
* I do/ I will
* Certainly (to respond to request – "sure" in American).
* Of course (to answer a question like: Do you like cats? Of course, / sure/ I d...).

No
* Nope
* Nah (particularly to express disgust or to say definitely no).
* Sorry (to refuse something/ an offer).
* Not likely.
* No way
* Certainly not.
* Absolutely not.
* Unfortunately not/ I'm afraid not (to apologies).
* If only.
* I will pass.

Handout 3

Thank you
* you 're a star!
* You're an absolute star!
* You're a life-saver!
*I don't know what I do without you!
* I appreciate that!
* You should not have!
*Cheers! (informal).
*Tab! (informal).
* Fab! (informal).

Okay
* Okey-dokey (informal).
* All right.
* Very well
* Right-oh
* Fair enough (when we have no feelings about something).

Lesson Three Activities (2)

Speaking Activity

1. Appropriation Activity

With your classmate, try replacing "yes" in the script with its alternatives from Handout 3. Then insert the word "sorry" and its alternatives from Handout 2 as much as you can. Count the changes, and the pair that manages to make the most adequate changes will be the winner.

2. Automaticity Activity

* Watch the extract a last time.
* Suppose Mr. Brown refuses to help Paddington. He tries to convince his wife and child of his point of view. However, Mr. Brown has severe speech problems and people always have problems in deciphering what he says.

- In light of this statement, and in groups of four, imagine a conversation between Paddington, Mr. and Mrs. Brown and their boy:
- Try to include as many words / expressions as possible from the handout.
- Take into consideration that Paddington speaks a kind of posh English (use formal language) and that the Browns are members of the same family (tendency to use a more or less informal familiar vocabulary)
- Simulate your dialogue.

NB this icon appears where the extract or parts of it are played.

V. Handout 4

This document contains an alternative to some commonly used English adjectives that are more appropriate for everyday conversation and natural speaking. (From English with Lucy https://youtu.be/CP9VipkA6ns).

In American English, the adjective "smart" refers to a person as being very intelligent. In British English, however, it doesn't necessarily mean intelligent, so a bit of context needs to be added to make it clear. Consequently, in British English, a sentence like 'he is very smart' doesn't mean he is very intelligent, rather it refers to his being very well dressed. In other words, smart here refers to the way this person looks not the way he thinks.

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Here are some alternatives to **Smart, Good and Bad** in British English:

Smart	* Knowledgeable.	
	* Brilliant.	
	* Gifted (Skilled in a particular area).	
	* Witty (Funny and Intelligent).	
	* Sharp.	
	* Wise (Intelligent due to experience).	
	*Brainy (Studious).	
Good	* Marvellous!	
	* Superb!	
	* Exquisite (for food or drink).	
	* Delightful (something which brings happiness).	
	*Terrific!	
	*Splendid!	
Bad	* atrocious!	* Vile.
	*Obscene!	* Nasty.
	*Dreadful!	* Evil.
	*Disgusting!	* Brutal.
	*Despicable!	* Abhorrent.

Lesson Four Activities (1)

Pre-listening Activity

1. Using synonyms from the handout, describe to your classmate: a person you like; another you hate. Use the expression:

Is/are+ such+(a/an) adj+ noun!

e.g., He is such a brilliant student!

2. Consider the following statement:

"Paddington was arrested immediately after being charged with stealing a valuable book. Around noon, he was taken for the first time to the prison restaurant, where he met all the other inmates (prisoners) and the most terrifying person of all, Knuckles, the chef cooker. Paddington, dissatisfied with the dish, decides to ..."

In light of this statement, and the picture you may have drawn on the character of Paddington from the previous lesson, imagine a possible event that you think Paddington will experience in the restaurant. Discuss your prediction with your partner. Do not forget to include alternatives to the words 'good, bad, smart in your suggestion in addition to expressions like: I predict he will; I suppose...; I imagine ...; I think...; He will probably...; etc.

Listening Activities

a. Speed Alternation Activity

Consider carefully the following list of words:

lumpy, it, complain, gritty, hang on, as, rubbing, word, medic, chaps, shame, food, yeah, in that, overhaul.

Listen to the extract carefully then complete the following utterances from the previous list (two listenings are allowed: at slow and normal speed). The letters P, K, G respectively refer to Paddington, Knuckles and the prison guard.

P: Um, excuse me Mr. Knuckles.

K: Yesssss!

P: I just wondered if I could have a quick ..... about the .....

G: Send a ..... to the canteen.

K: You want to .....

P: Oh! No, I wouldn't say .....

K: Oh, that's a ..... because I just love ..... when people .....

P: Really?

K: Oh! .....

P: Well .... case, It's very ..... and ....., and .... for the bread /silence/ need I say more. I think we need to completely ..... the menu, now I know we're working to a tight budget but we could at least add some sauce – Oh sorry about that I'll just uh ummmm no that's just ..... it in.

Lesson Four Activities (2)

K: Hemmmmmm

P: Don't worry I know what gets ketchup stains out. ..... , was it mustard?

That's just made it worse. Does anyone know what works on ketchup?

.....

b. Awareness-raising Activity

Consider the following utterances:

It is very gritty and lumpy Oh! Sorry about that.

1. Based on the information presented in the General handout, explain the phonological aspect present in these two utterances. Give an example of your own.
2. Do your predictions (from pre-listening activity) match what actually happened to Paddington in the prison restaurant? Rate your work out of 5.

Speaking Activities

"The chef, Knuckles, is fascinated by the idea of making apple cakes. But because he is so arrogant, he can't tell Paddington that he simply doesn't know how to make one."

- In pairs, try to imagine yourself in Knuckles' shoes and predict what he might say to persuade Paddington to give him the apple pie recipe without embarrassing himself. Take care to use Ellipsis and the vocabulary from the handout. Switch roles and play the conversation again.

Each pair gives their response in front of the others, who will evaluate their peers' presentation using the new vocabulary and expressions from handout 4. The best pair is the one that accumulates the most points.

NB this icon appears where the extract or parts of it are played.

VI. Handout 5 (a)

Abolitionism, or the **abolitionist movement**, was the movement to end slavery. This term can be used both formally and informally. In Western Europe and the Americas, abolitionism was a historic movement that sought to end the Atlantic slave trade and set slaves free.

The British abolitionist movement only started in the late 18th century.

The Zong massacre was a mass killing of more than 130 enslaved Africans by the crew of the British slave ship Zong on and in the days following 29 November 1781.[a] The Gregson slave-trading syndicate, based in Liverpool, owned the ship and sailed her in the Atlantic slave trade. As was common business practice, they had taken out insurance on the lives of the enslaved people as cargo. According to the crew, when the ship ran low on drinking water following navigational mistakes, the crew threw enslaved people overboard into the sea.

The Slave Trade Act 1807, officially **An Act for the Abolition of the Slave Trade**, was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom prohibiting the slave trade in the British Empire. Although it did not abolish the practice of slavery, it did encourage British action to press other nation states to abolish their own slave trades.

Many of the supporters thought the Act would lead to the end of slavery. Slavery on English soil was unsupported in English law and that position was confirmed in Somerset's case in 1772, but it remained legal in most of the British Empire until the Slavery Abolition Act in 1833.

The Slavery Abolition Act 1833 abolished slavery in parts of the British Empire. This Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom expanded the jurisdiction of the Slave Trade Act 1807 and made the purchase or ownership of slaves illegal within the British Empire, with the exception of "the Territories in the Possession of the East India Company", Ceylon (now Sri Lanka), and Saint Helena.

The West Indies: In 1492, Christopher Columbus became the first European to record his arrival at the islands, where he is believed by historians to have first set foot on land in The Bahamas. After the first of the voyages of Christopher Columbus to the Americas, Europeans began to use the term West Indies to distinguish this region from both the original "Indies" (i.e. India) and the East Indies of South Asia and Southeast Asia.

Adapted from: Wikipedia contributors. (2018, September 22). Abolitionism. In *Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. Retrieved 07:43, November 10, 2019, from https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Abolitionism&oldid=1112846538

Handout 5 (b)

Slavery Abolition Act 1833

- Abolished slavery throughout most of the British Empire
  - *(with the notable exceptions "of the Territories in the Possession of the East India Company," the "Island of Ceylon," and "the Island of Saint Helena")*
- But in practical terms, however, only slaves below the age of six were freed, as all slaves over the age of six were redesignated as "apprentices". Apprentices in the UK were trainees but were not free but were bound to their master for a fixed number of years – just like slaves.
- The Act also included the right of compensation for slave-owners who would be losing their *property* – this amounted to claims worth £20 million – 40% of the Government's income for that year! Equivalent to £270 billion if it was today's government.

1779 painting of Dido Elizabeth Belle (1761–1804) and her cousin Lady Elizabeth Murray (1760–1825).

Lesson Five Activities (1)

Pre-listening Activity

- Examine the images on Handout 5 (b). Relate them to information on Handout5 (a) then try to guess the content of the today's-excerpt (the main theme, the period of time, where the events take place).

-Name titles of books and film that match the information and images provided.

a. Listening Activity (Listening Comprehension Activity)

Denice G. (2017). *John Explains the Zong Ship Case to Dido*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8oE6pfYSj-k&list=PLMDN6VfTfU3Zp1zXn9Z0OKIc8wcw_6vwk&index=29&t=75s

a. Watch the excerpt once with the sound off then describe the scene and the characters.

-Can you situate the events in a period of time?

b. With the sound on, listen carefully to the dialogue between Dido Belle and Sir John Davinier. Two listening are permitted (both at normal speed).

- Answer the following questions:

What was Bell doing, when John arrived?

Did John apologise for peeping? Justify your answer.

What is the issue they were talking about?

On this question, were they in the same position? Justify your answer.

Lesson Five Activities (2)

b. Awareness-raising Activity

- Describe the language spoken by Bell and John in terms of: formal/informal; simple/poshy.

Examine the following expression:

"Quite a task to sit for so many hours"

- What do Belle intended to say using this expression.

- What is the phonological aspect present in this expression? Explain.

Speaking Activity (Simulation)

- ***Belle*** is a 2013 British drama film directed by Amma Asante, written by Misan Sagay and produced by Damian Jones. The film is inspired by the 1779 painting of Dido Elizabeth Belle beside her cousin Lady Elizabeth Murray, at Kenwood House, which was commissioned by their great-uncle, William Murray, 1st Earl of Mansfield, then Lord Chief Justice of England. Very little is known about the life of Dido Belle, who was born in the West Indies and was the illegitimate mixed-race daughter of Mansfield's nephew, Sir John Lindsay. She is found living in poverty by her father and entrusted to the care of Mansfield and his wife. The fictional film centers on Dido's relationship with an aspiring lawyer; it is set at a time of legal significance, as a court case is heard on what became known as the Zong massacre, when slaves were thrown overboard from a slave ship and the owner filed with his insurance company for the losses. Lord Mansfield rules on this case in England's Court of King's Bench in 1786, in a decision seen to contribute to the Abolition of the Slave Trade Act of 1807.

In *Wikipedia*. https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Belle_(2013_film)&oldid=997504110

- Excited for having seen the film "Belle" in the cinema, one of your friends told you how wonderful the film was. Curious to know the details, you ask your friend a bunch of questions.

- Read the above summary of the film "Belle" (2013). In groups of five students, highlight the main events then build a conversation embodying all the members of the group. Play the roles. The best group is the one that manages to collect the most points according to the table on the board.

- Do not forget to use: Ellipsis; speech acts and alternatives for yes, no, good, bad, smart and sorry (Handout 1, 2, 3, 4).

Information from Handout5 (a & b).

VII. Handout 6 (a)

The proverb is a unique form of language. It is popular among people. English proverb contains the common sense and the practical experience of humanity. It is a kind of folk literature. Proverb, as one of the varieties of language, is human being's crystallization of wisdom. It embodies a concise language. English writer William Penn once said: "The wisdom of nation lies in their proverbs." And some people thought that proverbs were embodiment of daily experience. The proverbs are produced on the basis of cultural concepts and social encyclopaedia. Proverb is useful in people's daily life. It helps people recognize life, find the meaning of life and even encourage people's will. It plays an important role in people's life. As a product of culture, the proverbs, the special form of language, are used to reflect a nation's social life, custom and mode of thinking (He & Zhang, 2018)

Here are some English proverbs on women from He and Zhang (2018).

(1) A man of straw is worth of a woman of gold.

(2) If the husband be not at home, there is nobody.

(3) Man, woman and devil are three degrees of comparison.

(4) A woman's advice is never to seek.

(5) A woman and a glass are ever in danger.

(6) Women are wavering as the wind

(7) Daughters and dead fish are not keeping wares.

(8) It is harder to marry a daughter well than to bring her up well.

(9) Marry a wife of thine own degree.

Handout 6 (b)

Here are some useful Expression to show agreement or disagreement (Thornbury, 2013, p. 105)

Expressing an opinion: If you ask me... (Personally), I think ... If you want my opinion, ...	**Conceding an Argument** Perhaps you're right Ok, you win. You've convinced me
Strong Agreement: Absolutely. I couldn't agree more. I totally agree. I agree.	**Hedging**: I take your point, but ... Yes, but ...
Qualified Agreement: That's partly true. On the whole, yes. I'd go along with that.	**Strong Disagreement**: I don't agree. On the contrary... I totally disagree.